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Education, Army Style
Creative Arts and Higher Education
Peacetime Military Training

DECEMBER, 1944

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CONTENTS

Editorial Notes:	487
Arts Program	494
Education, Army Style, <i>William W. Hall</i>	496
Have We a Lost Generation?, <i>Earl S. Miers</i>	501
The Education of the Free Man, <i>Robert C. Clothier</i>	504
Compulsory Peacetime Military Training?, <i>Allan P. Farrell, S.J.</i>	507
Universal Military Training—A Dangerous Proposal, <i>Albert G. Parker, Jr.</i>	514
This Is Public Relations, <i>W. Emerson Reek</i>	519
The Scope of Intercollegiate Athletics, <i>John E. Pomfret</i>	523
The Shape of Things to Come on the Campus of Tomorrow, <i>Dwight E. Stevenson</i>	526
The University and the Teaching Profession, <i>Sir Fred Clarke</i>	534
Donors' Annuities and College Security, <i>William E. Weld</i>	539
How to Determine the Retirement Date, <i>Henry James</i>	542
Creative Arts and Higher Education—The Case for Creative Arts, <i>Helen Peavy Washburn</i>	552
Changing Emphases in Higher Education: Some Implications, <i>Hugh H. Smythe and Mabel M. Smythe</i>	566
Campus Idol or Faith Betrayed, <i>Harold C. Binkley</i>	570
Eminent Graduates of American Colleges, <i>B. W. Kunkel</i>	578
Book Review:	
A Design for General Education, <i>Gilbert W. Mead</i>	595
Among the Colleges	597
New College Presidents	599
Additions to the Office Library	600
Index	601

The BULLETIN is published four times a year—in March, May, October and December. Its emphasis is on description and exposition, not primarily on criticism or controversy. The March issue regularly carries the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Association. Leaders in the college world contribute to every issue.

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EDITORIAL NOTES

THE NEXT ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION WILL BE HELD AT THE CLARIDGE HOTEL, ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY, JANUARY 10-12, 1945.

THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS at its fall meeting on September 22, 1944, elected President Clarence P. McClelland, of MacMurray College, and President James P. Baxter, III, of Williams College, to fill the vacancies caused by the resignation of President Mildred H. McAfee and the death of President Elam J. Anderson. President James B. Conant of Harvard was elected Vice-President of the Board to serve out the unexpired term of Captain McAfee.

TEACHERS INSURANCE AND ANNUITY ASSOCIATION announces that William H. Cobb, business manager and secretary of the University of Iowa since 1930, has been elected secretary. Mr. Cobb will assist vice-president Rainard B. Robbins in promoting the activities of TIAA which relate to retirement plans and plans for collective life insurance at colleges and universities.

THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION has made a grant of \$5,000 for the preparation of a book on liberal education for democracy by President Donald J. Cowling of Carleton College and President Carter Davidson of Knox College.

WE have some fifty or more copies of **ARCHITECTURAL PLANNING OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE** by J. Frederick Larson and Archie Palmer. This book was sent to the membership several years ago. Since then, additional colleges have joined the Association and many new college presidents have taken office who may be interested in having this comprehensive reference work in their office libraries for consultation on campus development. This book of 179 pages has special reference to the small college, contains photographs, plans and other illustrative material and is available now at a special price of one dollar.

A GROUP OF FRIENDS OF WASHINGTON COLLEGE have purchased and presented to the college for a President's

House, one of colonial Maryland's famous houses, the Ringgold-Pearce house, on the Chester River in Chestertown. Built in 1735, it was the home of Thomas Ringgold, a famed American Colonial merchant prince, and was the stopping place of George Washington when visiting the college. It is notably distinguished architecturally, especially for its magnificent double stairway, and its paneling throughout. The recent owner, Mrs. Henry W. Catlin, participated in the gift.

INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION: NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL by I. L. Kandel should be read by all interested in the International Office of Education who desire to be intelligently informed. The editor concurs in Kandel's conclusion that such an office should not be expected to provide financial assistance for developing education in backward countries when it is to be noted that such countries can devote such a large part of their resources to maintaining standing armies. "Other suggestions of work to be undertaken by an International Office of Education, such as the preparation of model courses of study or of textbooks for use in schools throughout the world, are also open to criticism on the ground that education must have its roots in the cultural environment which it is to serve. The main function of an International Office of Education would be to observe, to gather information and to disseminate it. The dissemination of such information would help to make the world conscious of destructive elements in education which threaten its stability and on the positive side would stimulate healthy emulation among the countries of the world. An important service could also be performed by an International Office of Education if it collected courses of study and textbooks and published digests of them for world-wide examination and criticism." Published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

GRANITE AND SAGEBRUSH is a book from the pen of one of Pomona's great and beloved teachers—Frank P. Brackett. The story is personal, intimate and candid. It describes the struggles and vicissitudes endured by a little band of early pioneers in the westward progress of education. It tells how Pomona

College, in the short span of fifty years, grew and rose from a wilderness of sagebrush to take its place as one of the leading liberal arts colleges of America. The text is lively and moving—a thoroughly readable book in the beautiful prose of the author. Published by Ward Ritchie Press, Los Angeles.

A **AMERICAN EDUCATION UNDER FIRE** by V. T. Thayer gives a searching analysis of what is wrong in American education, what are the most thorny controversial issues and what are wise constructive measures. Published by Harper & Brothers, New York.

T **THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SLAVONIC AND EAST EUROPEAN LANGUAGES** is undertaking a survey of both area and language courses now offered in the Slavic and general East European field by collegiate institutions throughout the United States. This survey is intended to provide, as far as possible, a complete directory of American facilities in this field and, once completed, will require only periodic checks in order to remain up-to-date. Doubtless it will be found that the War has caused an increasing interest in the Slavonic field which will continue to grow after the War.

B **BEYOND THE HORIZON OF SCIENCE** is a challenging little book, charmingly written, on the thesis that there is no real conflict between science and religion. The author is Arthur L. Williston, a well-known engineer and educator, who at one time was assistant to the late Charles R. Mann, when he was president of the American Council on Education. The book is a memorial tribute to Doctor Mann, to whose memory it is dedicated. It supports the thesis of the famous Charles P. Steinmetz that: "When the world gives the same attention to discovery in spiritual realms that, during the past half century, it has given to discovery in material fields, civilization will make more progress in decades than it previously has made in centuries." Published by W. A. Wilde Company, Boston.

T **THE FUTURE OF EDUCATION** is a challenging book of 254 pages written by Porter Sargent. It is a reprint of the prefatory part of the twenty-eighth edition of *A Handbook of*

Private Schools. Mr. Sargent's comments are spicy, at times caustic, when he becomes critical of reactionary trends in education. He has gleaned the high spots from books, pamphlets, bulletins and reports on problems of education, primarily in the field of education, that have been issued during the past year. The more important of these have been quoted. He has given commendation to the Report of the Commission on Liberal Education but his attitude has been quite different toward Van Doren's book. To say the least, the findings in the book are quite stimulating. It is published by Porter Sargent, Boston.

CHARLES A. and MARY R. BEARD'S BASIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, in the words of its authors, brings "to a close our many years of cooperative efforts in seeking to interpret the long course of American history . . . it is newly designed and newly written to express the historical judgment which we have reached after more than forty years. Whatever may be added to the record here presented, a consideration of these activities, ideas and interests, is basic, we believe, to any understanding of American history." Published by The New Home Library, New York.

IN A RECENT REPORT ISSUED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION under the chairmanship of E. V. Hollis, Chief Specialist in Higher Education, the estimated percentage distribution of types of education among the enlisted personnel is as indicated in the following table:

<i>Armed forces</i>		
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
College	13.4	20.1
High school	57.2	74.5
Grade school only	29.4	5.4
	<hr/> 100.0	<hr/> 100.0

The first line includes those who have had some college training, the second line the additional persons who have had some high school training and the last line lists those who have had only one or more years in the grade schools. The educational advantage indicated by the enlisted women is significant.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND SPIRITUAL VALUES edited by John S. Brubacher was written because of a recognition that this is a critical moment in which our spiritual values stand in dire need of support from the public school. This recognition has led to an examination in this volume of the part which the "spiritual values" should play in public education, despite the fact that by long tradition religion as such is barred from our public school curriculum. Published by Harper & Brothers, New York.

THE READING CLINIC STAFF OF PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE announces two important meetings on reading problems during 1945. The first, a Seminar on reading disabilities, will include a program for analyzing disabilities and a demonstration of remedial techniques. The second, Conference on Reading Instruction, will deal principally with classroom problems in reading, for elementary, secondary and college levels.

TO COMMEMORATE THE TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION, a publication has been issued which gives a record of some of the achievements of the Institute. Between 1922 and 1944 the Institute placed on fellowships and scholarships in American colleges and universities a total of 2,046 European and Asiatic students and 1,131 students from the Latin American countries. During the same period 2,242 United States citizens have received awards for study in Europe and Asia, and 102 have been sent to other American republics. In all, the Institute has administered 5,544 awards, the actual cash value of which has been estimated at \$3,734,000.

PI LAMBDA THETA announces two awards of \$400 each, to be granted on or before August 15, 1945, for significant research studies in education. An unpublished study on any aspect of the professional problems of women may be submitted by any individual, whether or not engaged at present in educational work, or by any chapter or group of members of Pi Lambda Theta. Inquiries should be addressed to May Seagoe, University of California, Los Angeles.

“ONE IMPORTANT PROBLEM is that of seeing that the veterans receive enough liberal education to assure effective and stable leadership in the democratic postwar world for which we are fighting. We must not forget that the veterans of this war will provide most of the public leadership for at least a generation to come, and we shall need all the liberal arts and cultural education we have been temporarily neglecting in order to meet the problems of reconstructing society. This is true not only for the veterans, but also for our young people who are preparing for college. We should warn them against a too early specialization in education, thus depriving them of a sufficiently broad background to see how many things must be fitted together before they can get a pattern of really satisfactory living in the modern world.

“We must not confuse the imperious demands of war with the values relevant to days of peace. We are dealing with men who have been used to settling things with a gun, with young people who have been highly trained to destroy quickly, effectively, overwhelmingly. We must turn their attention and prove their power for constructive effort. It is essential that education be forged into an effective instrument for the job of building a sensitiveness to the real values that endow life with meaning; to provide for their needs as human beings in society, and these needs are wisdom and goodness. Success in business is only incidental to success in life, and success in life is based upon the broad character of one's operations within the sphere in which he lives. The solution of the problems in our democracy will always require citizens who can see beyond the limits of their own profession, their own class, their own community. This applies to those who choose the leaders, as well as the leaders themselves. It applies equally in the fields of politics, of religion, of industry, agriculture and labor, and it applies in every community of our land.”—Excerpt from 1943-44 Annual Report by President Charles E. Diehl, Southwestern, Memphis, Tennessee.

GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL SERVICES IN EDUCATION by Anna Y. Reed, professor emeritus in New York University, is a most timely publication. It should be valuable for an unusual amount of guidance and counseling work now being established in the stronger colleges, primarily for the sake

of the returning veterans. The book gives a comprehensive treatment of the problems in its field and can be summed up as follows: "It presents an over-all picture of past work in guidance and personnel services as a background upon which to evaluate progress; it discusses services for individuals of all ages and of all intellectual levels; it demonstrates, for the first time, that the movement in guidance and personnel services is not a unit, but is advancing on four sectors; it puts on school administration the main responsibility for guidance and for personnel service; it provides a textbook, a history, a critique, a program, and a warning; it also goes into prophecy, for it appeals to educators and counselors to convert what might become 'the beginning of the end' into 'the end of the beginning.'" Published by Cornell University Press, Ithaca.

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION TODAY, as told in **THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN MEXICO** by George I. Sanchez, is an engrossing story which leads up to a brief consideration of the state of higher education today. As the development of education in Mexico is discussed in relation to the vital currents and issues which have contributed to the evolution of Mexican society, this book will not only interest educators, but will give the general reader a better understanding of the rich and complex cultural heritage of our neighbors just south of the border. Published by King's Crown Press, New York.

ARTS PROGRAM

WITH fourteen visitors scheduled for tours during October and November, it was fortunate that the Arts Program did not this season meet the difficulties which it encountered last year. It was necessary to postpone only one tour—Lamar Dodd's; and only one visitor, Xavier Gonzalez, was forced to withdraw entirely.

Formerly engaged in visual research with the Navy Department, Mr. Gonzalez was "drafted" by the Army to serve as Art Director in the Department of Information and Educational Services, with headquarters in Washington. He will have charge of organizing the rehabilitation program for returning soldiers and among other projects will direct the graphic presentation of their needs throughout the country.

In place of Xavier Gonzalez the Arts Program was lucky enough to enlist the interest of Harry Gottlieb, who agreed to take over the tour. Well known for his work in the art of the silk-screen, although he has in recent years turned back to oil painting, Mr. Gottlieb gave a lecture-demonstration in the former medium as the main event of his visit.

Whenever earth tremors are recorded on local seismographs, the name of Father Joseph Lynch, S.J., comes into the news. Father Lynch attributed the earthquake of September 6, which shook the Eastern seaboard, to "the re-setting of the earth's crust in earth depressions dating back to the last glacial age." "This one probably occurred in the Laurentian Fault," Father Lynch said. "It's something like a house resettling after sun and dampness have caused weather strain in the house timbers, only there it takes the form of the weird creaking you are apt to hear late at night."

Returned from his trip to India as artist-correspondent for *Life Magazine*, Millard Sheets is back at Scripps College. Four of his paintings, commissioned by Standard Oil of New Jersey during Sheets' Far-Eastern sojourn, were exhibited at the Brooklyn Museum. Mr. Sheets was especially fascinated by the juxtaposition of the Western and the new against the old civilization of the East, and he has depicted what he saw and felt in a series of striking watercolors.

Among four scholarships offered by the David Mannes Music School is one for study with Yves Tinayre, Arts Program baritone.

James de la Fuente, violinist on the faculty of Hendrix College, took part in one of the Victory Concerts sponsored by the City of New York on November 25-26.

Aubrey Pankey, baritone, one of this year's additions to the Arts Program's list of visitors, is heard frequently in recital over the airwaves.

EDUCATION, ARMY STYLE

WILLIAM W. HALL, JR.

PRESIDENT, THE COLLEGE OF IDAHO

IN March 1943, the Army Air Forces invaded the campus of The College of Idaho. An ivy-covered liberal arts college was transformed overnight from a citadel of culture to a citadel of war. Sixteen months later, the last of the soldier-students departed as they had come, marching and singing, leaving the professors to ruminate amid the ivy on lessons to be learned from education, army style.

Unlike the college training programs of the Navy and other branches of the Army, that of the Army Air Forces was quite distinct from the civilian college, with its separate curriculum, classes and classroom procedures. The College contracted with the Army to furnish instruction in five academic subjects—English, mathematics, history, physics and geography, to provide physical training and courses in medical aid and civil air regulations, in accordance with content and methods prescribed by the Army. Military drill, discipline and instruction in military customs and practice were in the hands of the assigned military personnel.

Jolted out of the accustomed freedom and independence of their academic ways, the faculty were solemnly instructed by the president, as the Commanding Officer nodded approval: "Your mission is not to do the best job you know how to do, but to do the job the Army wants done, the way the Army wants it done, in consideration of which the Army is paying the College under the terms of the contract."

This was a new experience and an unsweetened pill for a group of academic stalwarts. War was war, however, and they cheerfully suppressed their academic consciences and sat meekly at the feet of Mars as represented by the ubiquitous Commanding Officer, visiting brass hats, and contradictory directives from command headquarters.

Mars proved to be an exacting teacher. Today the professors acknowledge that, in spite of waste motion and bungling, the Army accomplished the objectives it set for itself. In the light of these objectives the program was a success. Furthermore, they

concede that there was much in the experience which can profitably be appropriated by them and the College in peacetime education, civilian style.

They were gratified by the alertness and sense of purpose on the part of the students. Strict discipline was the order of the day. Subjects which in themselves might prove dull were enlivened by deliberate choice of illustrations and problems drawn from the presumed field of common interest, namely, aerial warfare. The entire program, from parts of speech to mathematical formulae, was consciously related to a stern and inevitable alternative, namely, to kill or be killed.

A central theme, a central interest, a central issue lent cohesiveness and motivation to the educational process rarely found in civilian programs. The professors in their meditations beneath the ivy are stirred by the challenge to project this sense of unity and purpose upon the level of peacetime instruction, which is concerned quite as truly, though less immediately perhaps, with issues of life and death.

A rude awakening was in store for the college pundits in the intensity, the seriousness and effectiveness of the Army's physical fitness program. The athletic director who held a graduate degree in physical training was sent to Army headquarters for a two weeks' course to learn the subject anew from the ground up. Humbled, enlightened and enthused, he returned to conduct a program which was a reproach to the easygoing methods of peacetime training. Although recognizing the advantages of competitive games which were excluded from the Army program, the College can never again tolerate with easy conscience a system which permits those in greatest need of physical upbuilding and hardening to go through effortless motions while concentrating its resources and energies upon those already physically adequate. Physical fitness for all is a gospel which the Army has taught us and a program which pays dividends in bodily strength and mental vigor.

The professors, however, are not given over to self-reproach. Freely admitting that they have some things to learn from the Army program and that the Army succeeded in accomplishing its purpose of telescoping into a five months' course the minimum essentials of general education to qualify young men as commis-

sioned officers in the Air Forces, they nevertheless recognize the inadequacy of the program from the standpoint of higher education. None of them will deny that the students benefited from their training, but the merits of the program apply to the high school level rather than to the college. To their cost, the professors discovered that the methods and objectives which had led to their success in college instruction were a liability in the Army system.

The trimness of the soldier-students on parade, the cheerful discipline, the regulated routine from morning bugle to light-out signal at night, contrasted strongly with the happy-go-lucky appearance and habits of the traditional College Joe. The public was impressed. Under Army tutelage, the College seemed to be learning how to do its job. But the professors made mental reservations.

The regulated routine was a wholesome innovation in campus life, but scarcely a long-term substitute for the self-reliance and initiative developed in ninety-five per cent of the peacetime students who found ways of earning their way through college in whole or in part.

Classroom procedures as prescribed by the Army were effective for their purpose, but violated every principle of higher education. The class was to be regarded as a unit in itself, and any attempt to deal with students as individuals was discouraged. One instructor, to whom the educational process had no meaning except as it related itself to individual needs, gave up in despair and scurried back into the retirement from which she had been called.

The professors had always conceived of their function in the classroom as guide, philosopher and friend to the student in his task of mastering course content by his own reading and study outside of class hours. The library had been the focal point of academic life. But the professors soon learned that they were expected to do for the student what hitherto the student had been obliged to do for himself. There was no time in the student's schedule for browsing in the library and small occasion for consulting the reference shelves. Drill and a host of other military duties cut deep into time available for class preparation. The professor soon found himself in the dubious position of academic nurse.

The assumption had always been that the college professor was a leader whose function it was to lead his students as far as any of them could go. But the Army's conception of the instructor was more that of pusher than leader. The tempo was to be geared to the slow and the dull, while the brighter students marked time and waited for their comrades to catch up.

The difference in the two programs, however, went deeper than classroom procedures. It was reflected in underlying purpose. The College had always striven to enable its students to acquire a certain degree of literacy in the main fields of knowledge, but its chief endeavor had been to awaken curiosity and to create a desire for learning beyond the limits of prescribed course content. The Army's purpose was more circumscribed, relating all learning to the single theme: to kill and not be killed. As already noted this central motivation supplied a frame of reference quite definite and comprehensible, but even so it had its weaknesses. Some of the students questioned whether grammatical usage and historical data had any direct relation to combat flying. There was a constant tendency to whittle down subject matter to a point that would justify itself in terms solely of the limited objective in view. At times the whittling process threatened to leave nothing at all, not even the point. Then one had to fall back upon the ivy-covered argument that a certain amount of knowledge and enlightenment was a prerequisite to any kind of responsible leadership, and especially to that of a combat air crew.

The effectiveness of the teaching was handicapped by the confusion in the minds of the Army leadership as to the relative importance of the academic courses in achieving the desired utilitarian end. One inspecting colonel would stress the military features at the expense of the academic, another physical training, a third would insist that the academic work was the core of the program. The same fluctuation would follow from a change in the Commanding Officer. There was disagreement, also, regarding the relative importance of the several academic subjects. One official would assign priority to mathematics and physics, another would affirm that all parts of the curriculum were of equal importance. Within each subject, orders and directives conflicted as to the portions of content to be elaborated or subordinated. The result was uncertainty, hesitation and depressed morale among instructors.

Bureaucracy cast its shadow over the entire process. Endless administrative complications were encountered. Time and energy were lavished on complying with directives which were no sooner issued than reversed. The Dean's head was set spinning. Scheduling problems were solved only by creating a brain trust to do the job, a group of younger instructors who had won renown as chess players. All things were done not with reference to good judgment and common sense, but to the will of command headquarters which expressed itself in directives difficult to decipher and sometimes self-contradicting. It was education by remote control.

The terms of the Army contract established the principle that instructional services were to be paid for piecemeal. So much was allowed for teaching, so much for departmental supervision, so much for "remedial" work. Education by contract was a concept alien to our ivy-covered campus, where each professor was accustomed to do whatever and as much as was required for the good of his program and the College.

The main thing is that the job was done. It was education by short-cut, education by remote control, education by contract. But it accomplished its purpose. The professors are proud that they have done the Army's job. But they are more than ever aware that the Army's job is not their job.

HAVE WE A LOST GENERATION?

It is not G. I. Joe who has lost contact with the world

EARL S. MIERS

EDITOR, RUTGERS ALUMNI MONTHLY

FIFTEEN veterans of World War II are now enrolled at the University, and the fact that Rutgers, along with other institutions, already has begun to discharge in part the responsibility of educating the veteran is significant evidence of a new day approaching. By the end of the war the physical capacities of every competent educational institution should be overtaxed by those demanding admission under the provisions of the G. I. Bill of Rights and similar legislative acts. But the quantitative aspects of this problem, despite the many complex and baffling questions they pose, are relatively unimportant; there is more reason for viewing with skepticism the qualitative aspects. Education, after all, is not entirely a definitive term; some education is good, some bad, some indifferent.

For the past several months educators everywhere have been studying the problem of postwar education, and in terms of clock hours devoted to their study no one can question their zeal, their sincerity, and their goodness of spirit. Doubtless as far as the methodology of postwar education is involved they have reached many laudable and ingenious decisions; doubtless in the matter of courses and curricula they have come to not a few sensible conclusions; but still the uneasy feeling persists that for all the toil and thought they have given to the problem they may in the end evolve only a partial solution and believe it whole. This apprehension exists not because there is any reason for believing that our educators have failed to consider the personal problems of the veterans who soon will be coming to them in large numbers. Our educators have pondered at considerable length upon G.I. Joe as an individual—upon his aspirations and hopes and fears—and, from a sentimental point of view, it is probable that no problem that ever has faced the academic man has been studied with deeper emotional yearning to do the right thing. Still one wonders if more fruitful results could not be obtained if our educators would devote as much time and detachment to studying themselves—as persons.

If this war is going to produce a "lost generation" that generation will not be symbolized by the figure of the man in uniform, but by the figure of the man who has stayed comfortably at home fighting no enemy more dangerous than his local ration board. As an individual few vital changes have come into the daily routine of this man; as an educator his prejudices, his abilities and his techniques have been largely unchanged by the sweeping impact of world events during the past three years; and so, in large measure, there is danger that this man has unconsciously stagnated since Pearl Harbor and at the speed at which the war has moved around and beyond him he may have lost during these war years contact with the coming generation of undergraduates.

To education this threat of stagnation is real, and where it exists will become quickly evident if not checked—first in a breakdown in the effectiveness of the machinery for postwar education and secondly in the relationship between student and teacher. The first unhappy condition will prevail where nothing better than tinkering has been achieved in setting up the mechanism for postwar education—in short, where nothing more has been done than to make a mere readjustment of old methods, old courses and old standards to meet the new conditions. But more to be feared than the tinkering is the possibility that old attitudes also will be much in evidence—the attitudes of cynicism and complacency and aloofness to social, intellectual and spiritual responsibilities, attitudes so typical of our prewar world.

From time to time all of us have had contact with the type of man whose deeds and judgments reflected these attitudes, and we suspect that his presence on the academic scene—if he is there—may lead to moments neither too happy nor too promising. In the past we have heard him talk and teach many subjects, among them history, political science and political philosophy, with disdain and cynicism, and we wonder how his lectures are going to sound to the G. I. Joe who has gone through hell in the desperate hope that there is possible peace to be won if the idealistic tenets of democracy are revitalized and entrusted to men with a sense of honor. We have heard him talk of the labor movement with political awareness but rarely with social awareness, and we wonder how his lectures are going to sound to the G. I. Joe who has seen the bloated bellies of starving children and who knows how,

in the end, the seeds of war begin to grow in the home where there is want and suffering. We have heard him label himself the great pragmatist and talk of hard-headed business and balanced budgets and how you damn well have to look out for yourself in this world and we wonder how his lectures are going to sound to the G. I. Joe who has damn well been looking out for *him* these past three years and hasn't a nickel—nor very likely a job—to show for it. We have heard him talk of his narrow little world, his petty problems, his precious opinions, and we wonder how his lectures are going to sound to the G. I. Joe who has fought inch by inch for a hilltop, and who knew that hill was first a number on a military map but second a gateway, if he could win it and hold it, to a life where a man's faith can endure if his faith can be greater than the sum of all the little frustrations that impede his freedom of spirit and stunt his belief in a good destiny.

We believe our educators should begin to explore themselves. They needn't worry too much about G. I. Joe. For G. I. Joe has proved his mettle. There is nothing very stagnant about his mind or his personality. He can learn under pressure. The lessons he has been taught he can apply under fire. And he knows men—the kind of men who crack under the strain of great events, and the kind of men who in crises make manifest the spark of genius. G. I. Joe is going to know which men are capable of leading him and which aren't. Since Pearl Harbor, G. I. Joe has learned a great deal about the dynamics of leadership.

The education of the returning veteran may be done well, it may be done indifferently, it may be done badly. If the job is bungled, the future of higher education for a time may even seem imperiled, but that threat is not too serious. In another ten years the returning veteran himself will become the bulwark of our teaching faculty. He will shape our philosophy, our literature, our governmental and educational policies. After what he has learned and seen and known about human suffering he cannot fail to become the vitalizing factor behind the culture of our generation. The forward movement of the minds of men is so overpowering a force that in the end it effects its own solutions.

THE EDUCATION OF THE FREE MAN

ROBERT C. CLOTHIER

PRESIDENT, RUTGERS UNIVERSITY

IT is refreshing in these days to find a voice uplifted in praise of those values in education which should need no championing, but which we seem to have lost awhile. Two influences have served temporarily to relegate the liberal arts to a place of relative inferiority in our educational thinking. First, the wave of opportunism and practical-mindedness which followed World War I placed new emphasis upon ad-hoc courses and, in consequence, caused us to place too little upon the humanities. Second, World War II has confronted us with the challenge of survival, and our educational resources have been devoted, during these war years, to the *training* of technicians needed to win it. The humanities—the classics, philosophy, literature, history—such studies as these have seemed to have little place in the struggle for survival. What we need, we have told ourselves, are engineers and chemists and meteorologists and others of that fellowship to win the war, and linguists and economists to help administer the liberated regions until the peoples of those regions can gather themselves together and take over in their own right.

Yet in calmer moments we have known all along that something has been wrong. We have known that the purpose of education has to do with more far-reaching objectives than winning wars—even wars of survival.

Wars draw to an end in time—at least they have always done so—but the human race goes on, and it is the ultimate end of education to see to it that it does go on and in going on rises to ever higher levels of social and spiritual fulfillment. But technologists, too, are fully aware of these ultimate objectives and know that scientific training alone will not achieve them. There must be a renewed sense of the place of truth and understanding and sympathy and integrity and honor in the building

NOTE: This is an introduction to six excellent editorials published during the year in the *Rutgers Alumni Monthly*, Earl Schenck Miers, Editor. This is now issued in pamphlet form.

of a world fit to live in. We have seen what happens when they are left out of the formula.

As a matter of fact, the preservation and strengthening of what we call the humanities are closely linked with the ends for which we are fighting the war. Victory of arms without, at long last, corresponding victory of ideas would make all former Pyrrhic victories fade into insignificance. There is an interesting parallel between the physical and the mental wars we are fighting. Invasion of the German homeland with arms must be followed by invasion of the German mentality with ideas—ideas of justice under law, honor, freedom and human equality. With these ideas we must, in the end, drive out the concepts of force, expediency, domination and racial mastery. It will be a long, hard struggle, this war of ideas, but unless the nations which are fighting for justice, honor, freedom and equality win it, World War III will follow World War II with tragic certainty—and World War III, so greatly is science multiplying our powers of destruction, may well usher in the twilight of those who might have been gods. It may well be that there will be no World War IV because there will be no one to wage it.

Let us guard against any delusion of righteousness on our part. Our own America, proud as we are of her, is not the sole domicile of civic virtue and social health. If we are to discharge our task well in the international field, we had better put our own yard in order. There is a good deal of junk lying around. One cannot read the paper any morning without discovering fresh evidence of our ineptness—fresh struggles between management and workers, arbitrary actions by employers and labor leaders, denial of justice to minority groups, outbreaks of prejudice against racial and religious elements in our population, complacency in the face of intolerable living conditions in many of our great cities, widespread indifference to the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, political expediency in high places, disrespect and even contempt for the constitution. Such thoughts as these must give us pause.

If we of the free nations are to be prepared to wage this war of ideas against the peoples who are our military enemies at the moment, we must ourselves be in good intellectual and social health. We, in America, must think in realistic terms rather

than in materialistic terms and we must rid ourselves of the delusion that the two are in any sense synonymous. Recent events in history have offered irrefutable evidence of the realistic nature, on the other hand, of certain intangible and imponderable values. We must continue to advance our control over natural forces through science and technology, but we must recapture from the past our faith in these values which, if we appraise them right, are not less than religious in their nature and their significance.

In this intellectual crisis, the responsibility resting upon our colleges and universities is perfectly obvious. They are not wholly innocent of the unkempt condition of America's backyard. In some degree they have shared in the queer and muddled thinking of the last decades rather than clearly and courageously leading the way. In some degree they have relaxed their emphasis upon these realistic values which are intangible and imponderable and shifted it instead to values which are more "practical." In some degree they have laid greater stress upon teaching and curricula which have to do with making one's way in the world than upon those which have to do with preserving and building a world in which to make one's way. Yet at heart they are sound and while they may have strayed from the trail here and there, they have not—even in the darkest days of frustration—entirely lost sight of their ultimate objectives and they are still on the march.

It is with a sense of great personal satisfaction that I have read Mr. Miers' editorials which appeared originally in the *Rutgers Alumni Monthly*. He has said with fine clarity what a great many of us have been thinking, and I find myself in substantial agreement with what he has written. He is a little severe in some of his criticisms of our universities and colleges just as he is over-charitable in his comments upon certain individuals, but there is no question of the intelligence and penetration of his observations. And there is no doubt that his editorials throw a light upon the path our institutions of higher learning must tread.

COMPULSORY PEACETIME MILITARY TRAINING?

ALLAN P. FARRELL, S.J.

ASSOCIATE EDITOR OF *America*

IT will not be long before a peacetime military training bill is presented to Congress for debate and decision. The bearing of such a measure on the present structure of American life is so far-reaching and revolutionary that it behooves all of us to weigh the consequences seriously.

Two such bills have been introduced and are now before the House Committee on Military Affairs: the Gurney-Wadsworth Bill (H.R. 1806)—originally the Wadsworth Bill—dating from February 11, 1943, and the May Bill (H.R. 3947), dating from January 11, 1944. Both call for a full year of compulsory peacetime military or naval training for all able-bodied male citizens and aliens residing within the United States. They further specify that after the year of training the trainees shall be enrolled as reservists in the land or naval forces for a period of four or eight years, and shall take such additional refresher training as may now or hereafter be prescribed by law. In the Gurney-Wadsworth Bill the age of training is put at "eighteen years, or within three years thereafter," while in the May Bill the age is "seventeen years, or immediately upon the successful completion of the full course of an accredited high school or preparatory school, whichever first occurs."

There seems no doubt that Congress will be asked to enact legislation along lines very similar to these two bills. The meaning of the proposal of universal military training should therefore be clearly grasped. It has nothing to do with the military needs of the present war. These are taken care of by the Selective Service Act. Nor is the proposal concerned with the military needs in the period immediately following the defeat of our enemies, while our troops will be required for policing the conquered countries. The present Selective Service Act will sufficiently satisfy these needs also, or at least its provisions can be kept in force long enough to care for them. No, the Gurney-Wadsworth and the May bills do not bear upon the current emergency. They propose *long-range and permanent* legislation—legislation which

would endure, not for a few years, but until such time as the law might be repealed. Since this is the case, Americans should examine every detail of the proposal. What is its purpose? Is it sound? Is it the American way and the "only" way of attaining the purpose in view? What is the value of the accumulation of arguments offered in support of it?

PURPOSE OF THE PROPOSAL

The purpose of a system of universal military training, as conceived in the Gurney-Wadsworth and the May bills, is one and the same: the future peace and security of the nation. Mr. May elaborates the idea negatively:

The experiences of the present conclusively establish that the lack of such a system results in unnecessary wars, the needless sacrifice of human life, the dissipation of the national wealth, and useless disruption of the social and economic fabric of the nation, and causes international discord and interracial misunderstandings.

In Mr. Wadsworth's belief, "there can be no effective national defense system that does not rest upon the principle that all citizens of a free state should be trained to defend their country." Therefore, both conclude, a system of universal military training is the "only" remedy for recurring wars and their disastrous consequences to the nation, the only effective defense of the peace and security of future generations.

Other proponents of the measure are not satisfied to rest their case on this single reason of peace and security. They believe that a variety of benefits would accrue to the nation. For instance, some or all of the following: A year of training under Army or Navy methods would immeasurably advance the physical fitness of our youth and would teach them the meaning of discipline and obedience, which have all but disappeared from American homes and schools. By removing hundreds of thousands of youth from the labor market, it would appreciably lighten the problem of unemployment. Common military life would serve to break down the barriers that now separate classes and races. It would provide a practical and efficient means of universalizing literacy and of giving youth the advantages of work and vocational training programs not unlike those devised for the C.C.C.

camp. Lastly, it would furnish a timely chance to put into effect a comprehensive scheme for indoctrinating youth in the American way of life.

A sampling of the opinions of prominent groups and individuals will further indicate the main lines of reasoning in favor of the proposal. The preliminary report of the American Legion's Committee on Postwar America demands:

Immediate enactment of a peacetime universal military training act in order that the nation may remain at peace and may preserve its democratic way of life, that its manhood may learn the value of national unity through the spirit and practice of national service, and that its moral and spiritual well-being be developed.

At its recent encampment in Chicago, the Veterans of Foreign Wars expressed the conviction that "compulsory military training would contribute greatly to the physical and mental health of the country, prepare the nation's youth for acceptance of service in uniform and develop inestimable qualities of leadership." Speaking at Norwich University on August 6, Robert P. Patterson, the Under Secretary of War, told his audience that:

Until a better age arrives, let us never forget that it is military power or the lack of it that decides whether a free nation is to live or is to perish. The bulwark of our security must rest on well trained and equipped forces of a strength to command the respect of unfriendly nations. In my opinion we cannot maintain those forces and that necessary strength except by a system of universal military training for our youth.

The last example is from the New York *Daily News*. In the issue of August 28 the publisher editorialized in favor of compulsory military training in these words:

It may insure us against another war, though the history of mankind throws doubt on that. But if and when war does come, it will assure us a better chance of victory. In any event, it will pay for itself by teaching young Americans personal hygiene, venereal precautions, the value of exercise, etc., and by taking up considerable unemployment slack.

THE ISSUE OF NATIONAL SECURITY

It is a virtue of the Gurney-Wadsworth and the May bills that they rest their case for universal military training on the

issue of national security. For this is a clear and a sound issue which every true American recognizes as of the highest importance. It is to be hoped that discussion and debate on the proposal will not for an instant lose sight of it.

However, granted the rightful demand for national security; granted, too, that the national policy of the future must provide permanently for adequate defense measures, and that this calls for a much larger peacetime army and navy—granted all this, two questions remain to be answered. The first is whether compulsory military training is the “only” way to guarantee the defense of our national security. The second is whether compulsory military training is the American way to do it. An unqualified *No* is the answer to both questions. In fact, it may be said that compulsory military training is not the only way because it is not the American way. This puts the burden of proof where it belongs—on the proponents of compulsory military training.

But let the negative side be heard. There are other effective ways of defending the security of the nation; for example, by increasing the number of strictly military and naval colleges, by modifying and extending the army and the navy R.O.T.C., by a sound and attractive program of voluntary recruitment. It will be objected that these means will not work. Such an objection, however, needs the proof of trial, and no trial has yet been made of these means. No doubt a compulsory and mass military system would be the easier method. Yet that does not at all prove it to be the “only” or the necessary method.

Of even greater moment is the fact that compulsory military training as proposed is un-American and a threat to our democratic way of life. It is un-American because it goes directly counter to our long-standing and sound traditions. In time of war or serious threat of war, it has been our tradition to invoke compulsory military service—as we did prior to this war by the Selective Service Act. But our tradition in peacetime has been to recruit army and navy personnel on a volunteer basis. Nor is it a fair objection to say that because in the past we have not recruited a volunteer army and navy strong enough to impress unfriendly nations, we cannot do so in the future. Our past policy, advisedly, has been to maintain a small navy and a smaller army. That we feel we must change that policy is no argument

for compulsory military training; it is an argument for better planned and more aggressive methods of recruitment.

Furthermore, the proposed legislation for compulsory military training is a threat to our democratic way of life. True, sponsors of the proposal make much of the argument that it will defend our democratic way of life against our enemies on the outside. What they overlook is the damage it would do on the home front. It would inevitably set up a professional military system like those which have done so much harm in Germany and Japan. Of course we would never become like the Germans or the Japanese! Then recall what happened in democratic France. Even a casual reading of the Gurney-Wadsworth and the May bills will reveal that the proposed legislation would establish by law a military system almost identical with most of the European systems of the past several generations. This sentence in the May Bill is particularly indicative of the type of military regime that would result: "Each trainee . . . shall be subject to such additional refresher training as may now or hereafter be prescribed by regulations promulgated by the President, or as may hereafter be prescribed by law." It is no pacifist or alarmist attitude to see in such a system a real danger that our democracy may disintegrate within while it is being defended against threats from without.

ARGUMENT BY ACCUMULATION

We can note an interesting fact. Whereas congressional and military leaders, in the main, hold fast to the one argument of national defense, every other sponsor of military training assembles several or a dozen arguments. This may mean that they recognize the weakness of even their strongest argument. But it also tends to muddle our thinking, to deceive the public into imagining that the reasons in support of universal military training are simply overwhelming. The very opposite is true. The arguments summarized and quoted above do not, either singly or by accumulation, justify peacetime military training.

A large number of the arguments betray a tragic abandonment to the Federal Government of the plain and primary duties of parents and schoolmen. Such are the arguments for physical fitness, for discipline and obedience, for vocational training, for

moral and spiritual well-being, and for a program of Americanization. The position of not a few public school educators is ironic as well. In the past they have entered pleas for more teachers and more money, and sometimes excused the bad job they were doing on the score that the schools were forced to assume many of the duties of parents. Now they seem anxious to turn the whole business over to their Uncle Sam. One of them wrote in the *New York Times Magazine* (August 27) to this effect: We need compulsory military training because national security demands it, but we need it also because our public school system is practically valueless in building boys into strong young men and because it is practically valueless in teaching youth the meaning of discipline. "Both the home and the school have betrayed boys and girls in the last two decades. . . . A year of compulsory military training, after high school and before college, will give us men who have stability of character." This sounds very contrite. It would be better for the nation if it were accompanied by a firm purpose of amendment. The impression it leaves is that the Army and Navy qualify better than the schools as peacetime educators.

A symptom of the muddled thinking that is being done for the people is the suggestion, as an alternative to military training, of a year of "national service." There would be, roughly, two or three months of military training and nine or ten months of vocational training and education in democratic citizenship. Now, either we need twelve months of predominantly military training as a necessary measure for defending our security or we do not. If we do not, there is no justification in anybody's world for a year of "national service." If only two or three months of military training are required for the defense of our security, let us have that and no more. For the real and only issue is this: what is absolutely necessary to defend the peace and security of future generations? It is certainly not met by handing over our youth—from home, church and school—to be vocationally and ideologically trained by the Government, principally because the Government will have on its hands permanent housing facilities for some 5,000,000 men when the war is over!

In conclusion, it seems very unwise to press forward the passage of a military training act until the war is over—indeed until the

country as a whole can view the matter apart from the emergencies and emotionalisms of war. There are two reasons for this. The first is the nature of the peace we hope can be made a reality. We are wholehearted in our hope for a permanent peace. There is no essential contradiction between this hope and the realization that in an imperfect world we must also present a rather impressive armed warning to unbelievers in peace. However the clamor for compulsory military training at this time will seem equivalent to an implicit prejudging that peace plans now being formulated by the major Powers are foredoomed to failure. We should at least be willing to put off debate on peacetime conscription until we can judge better what the peace will actually be.

The second reason is that, apart from any sentimentality, the ten million men who are fighting this war for America have a right to a voice in determining our future policies. They have a big stake in the nation's future. That future, which touches closely the future of their children, would be directly affected by a system of compulsory military training. So there should be no thought of enacting it into a law until they can return and join the debate on its soundness and its need. Politicians are quoted as saying that unless the measure is passed before the end of the war it will never be passed. When they say this, they are thinking of the last time, after World War I. But they are not thinking in terms of reality. When our men come home from this war it is inconceivable that they, of all people, will not have convictions as to whether the peace and security of their children demand peacetime conscription. And they will want to have the opportunity of expressing their convictions. When those who fought the first World War returned home they found that in their absence Congress had saddled the iniquitous Prohibition Amendment upon the country. It is to be hoped that today's fighters will not find on their return that Congress has again enacted a law in their absence which they may consider no less ill-advised and objectionable.

UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING—A DANGEROUS PROPOSAL

ALBERT G. PARKER, JR.
PRESIDENT, HANOVER COLLEGE

IT is disturbing to read many comments in newspapers and periodicals favoring universal military training and too few pointing out its dangers.

So far, churches and educational associations have ventured little further than asking that no action be taken until after the war. Many of us believe that such a suggestion merely postpones facing the issues involved. It also covers over the real opposition that exists to universal military training.

Opposition to taking a year from every boy's life for military training does not imply one is a pacifist, an isolationist, or opposed to a strong military defense of our country, and a defense of principles of right and justice throughout the world. An honest, thoughtful, patriotic man can believe in a strong military support of right and justice and still be opposed to any plan of compulsory military training.

If it should ever be demonstrated that an adequate military force and an adequate reserve of trained men cannot be secured on a voluntary basis, there would be plenty of time to consider compulsory methods. The Selective Service system can take all men until the war is ended. Presumably the men trained at that time would leave our nation in no danger from lack of trained men for several years and we have time to see if voluntary methods will not provide both an adequate armed force and sufficient reserves for adequate preparation to meet any possible demand for our armed action.

With higher pay there is more inducement than ever before to a boy to choose a year of military training. At no time in our history has a boy of eighteen had the opportunity of earning his living and \$50 a month. This financial inducement, with such other inducements as can be presented to all the youth of America, should easily provide as large a reserve as we need.

Not every boy wishes to get a higher education which requires from four to nine years after his graduation from high school.

It is not only from lack of funds or lack of mental ability that many boys do not choose to study more. Many who do not wish to study more, as well as some who do, will voluntarily choose a year of military training.

There are, however, a number of boys who have very definite plans for their time, whether it be undertaking the support of their family dependents, establishing a home, learning a family business or getting a higher education. Such boys should be free to follow these socially desirable courses. To demand that all of these boys give a year of their lives and postpone for a year the plans they have, would tend to start them in life with a feeling of resentment and frustration. If they could be persuaded that the nation needed this universal military training, they would choose it voluntarily and would not feel the frustration of compulsion. As a matter of fact, neither they nor millions of older people will believe the sacrifice of a year from the life of every boy is necessary. It is this group of boys with the highest ambition and most determined purpose on whom our nation must depend for leadership. They are the ones whose spirits are more likely to be broken because they will feel frustrated, while boys with no formulated purpose may not. The driving spirit of all young men with plans for their lives is one of our nation's greatest assets.

One great fault of our western civilization is that we have no economic arrangement by which a boy can marry and establish a home and start a family at the natural age for it. To postpone this one more year unnecessarily is to make a dangerous situation worse.

Our nation is too easily drifting into a state of mind in which financial cost means little. A plan of universal military training would cost at least twice as much as we have ever paid in one year for higher education. The loss which this would represent in dollars and cents is appalling but the loss in manpower is even more appalling. These millions of man-years would not likely ever be used. In case of war, all would require new training and would have to await the materials for waging war, for have we not found in this war that men can be trained as fast or faster than the equipment for war can be produced?

It is my personal opinion that universal military training for

boys would start them into life with a secular stamp on their lives. I believe that thousands of boys whose normal life would lead them into church life and a cultural education would be diverted from these values which many people believe to be essential to national welfare. I would not deny that some other boys might be lifted to higher endeavor by a year of military training, but they could get that lift just as well from a year entered voluntarily.

Has there been much in the conduct of military training as we have known it to direct boys toward the kind of liberal education which must be the basis of a high social order? Has the tendency not been toward practical, vocational, technical values, which are excellent in themselves but which are inadequate for a developing social order of peace and justice? Indeed I have seen much to make me fear the direction of life which would come to all boys subjected to compulsory military training.

Boys under eighteen are not organized to protect their interests. Indeed they are still too young to know their interests. Labor, farmers, businessmen are organized to protect their own interests. Each sees something of the ultimate effect that any enlargement of government control of their interests may mean. The youth of America need many thousands of men to speak for their interests and to point out the danger that so unyielding a program as universal military training may portend.

We have spoken harshly of the German people who have allowed themselves to become subservient toward all expressions of government. We have been appalled at their easy yielding to any word of authority. They have allowed themselves to be brought under a government control with disaster to themselves and to the world.

If we should start all boys in life, compelled, whether they wish it or not, to spend a year under the orders of the officers of a government, would we not soon develop a citizenry who are submissive, who feel helpless as they are ordered around and controlled by the government? How can labor, farmers, doctors, businessmen not expect that the government may soon be taking a far greater control of their lives, if we have millions of men who have had a year's experience of submission, without recourse, to the government?

I can think of no better way to prepare a citizenry for a dictatorship with a totalitarian government, in fifteen or twenty years, than by forcing every boy to lay aside all plans for himself and take orders from the government; and it would prepare the way for a dictatorship even more to require every girl also to give a year of national service. How better could we prepare people to look to the government for directing and planning their lives than by starting boys in their mature life with a year of complete government control?

Have we not been fighting against the idea of a government controlling all the life of its people? Have we not been fighting to dignify the individual and to keep as much of life as possible on the voluntary basis?

Certainly we should have learned through the great costs of two wars that there must be military power to punish aggressors or, better still, to prevent the idea of aggression from taking root. Certainly America must have a stronger army, navy and air force than ever before, but these things do not mean we have to have a year from every boy's life. There are many ways these desirable and necessary ends can be secured without sacrificing the principle of freedom. There are many ways far less costly than military training or war, in which education can be used to maintain peace and to establish understanding and justice.

Careful thinking is needed to determine the ends we wish to secure. Much thinking and speaking has been cloudy. I have read in the papers the suggestions of those who do much talking, that universal military training would use up the camps we have, that it would be good for the health of the boys, that the discipline would be good for them, that a year of national service for boys and girls would develop a better attitude toward government, that it would lift a couple of million boys and girls from the labor market. How easily these national planners trespass upon the lives of those who are not organized to protect their own rights and interests and who have no votes.

The only thing that can justify any requirement of military service is national necessity. A great many of us believe that national necessity does not require universal compulsory military training. It will be disastrous to the spirit of the American

people to require one whit more than is necessary. Adequate national strength and security can doubtless be secured on a voluntary basis which preserves the individual freedom we have always enjoyed and which should be preserved to the fullest possible extent. We have no right to take so drastic an action as compulsory military training until we have made every effort to secure what is necessary on a voluntary basis.

THIS IS PUBLIC RELATIONS

W. EMERSON RECK

DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC RELATIONS, COLGATE UNIVERSITY

WORLD WAR II has posed a thousand new problems for higher education and there seems little reason to believe that peace will bring any great diminution of our problems. Whereas we worry today over reduced enrolments, empty dormitories and studentless professors, we will probably worry tomorrow over record enrolments which can be accommodated only by enlarging our staffs and erecting additional buildings. And in the face of these problems, plus dozens not yet anticipated, we may see our income from endowment or taxes greatly reduced and our opportunities to secure large individual gifts all but eliminated.

Public relations is helping to solve or alleviate many of higher education's problems today; but it will help even more with problems of the future as awareness of its importance spreads among educators.

Let us say immediately and emphatically that public relations and publicity are not synonymous. Publicity is anything which serves to gain public attention for an individual or institution. Thus news stories and pictures, magazine articles, picture bulletins, radio programs, news reels and sign boards, the principal publicity media, are only a means to an end—improved public relations.

Public relations, however, is any situation, act or word which influences people. Failure to analyze the problems of returning servicemen, arbitrary announcement of new policies, indifference to the activities of the local community, continued neglect of safety hazards and failure to employ courteous, intelligent persons on the central switchboard—any one of these may make for a college enemies whose influence will be felt in unexpected ways and places. On the other hand, things regarded as routine, traditional or insignificant, such as cleanliness in the college buildings, promptness in answering letters, the friendliness displayed by students and campus employees and the economy exercised in the thin peeling of potatoes, have influenced people not only to speak well of institutions but also to give five- or six-figure gifts at least expected times.

The public relations of any institution, then, can safely be defined as the sum total of all the impressions made by the institution and the various persons connected with it. The appearance, the action, the speech and the writings of every person employed by a college contribute toward the general impression of the institution, and any adverse opinion created, whether it be by the president or by the telephone girl, may have far-reaching effects.

Public relations work, in the light of these facts, becomes simply a studied or organized effort to win friends and influence them to speak and act for an institution.

Any college or university which would achieve good public relations needs to take eleven steps as follows:

1. *Employ a person experienced in public relations.* A common failing of colleges is to employ a recent graduate or a local newspaper man for this important job. Mature judgment and understanding of a dozen important techniques are essential for successful public relations work. Few young alumni will have either; the newspaper man is unlikely to have the latter. The college administrator who is serious in his intention to build good public relations will look for someone who has had experience as a director or as an assistant in a well-organized public relations office.

2. *Make maximum use of the public relations director in a counseling capacity.* The public relations man worthy of his hire studies the reactions of people and on many occasions he can save his president, the deans or the trustees from potential headaches with his counsel. The president who feels that his public relations director has no counsel of value to offer has been unfortunate in his choice of director—or he is suffering from the effects of blind egotism.

3. *Study the needs of the institution.* The first consideration in building the actual public relations program is the needs of the institution itself, and the program should always be scaled to those needs as revealed in the light of the college's objectives, past records and future opportunities. In every case, the objectives of the overall program of public relations, like the objectives of the institution it is trying to interpret, should be clear, definite, desirable and attainable.

4. *Determine the institution's publics.* Some institutions have ten publics and others fifteen, but most colleges and universities today have to give thought to twenty-five or more—each one a group whose opinions and actions may affect the standing and advancement of the institution. Regardless of the number, the

institution should never forget that those closest to the college—the students, the faculty, the office and grounds personnel, the community, the trustees, the alumni and the parents—are, in the long run, most important.

5. *Coordinate all public relations activities.* Many institutions have public relations workers scattered all over the campus, each with his own budget and independent office. The news bureau, the alumni office, the radio department, the publications office, the speakers' bureau, the placement bureau, the guide service and the fund campaign office are all part and parcel of public relations and their work should be coordinated and correlated. Much of the work done by the president, the deans, the business manager and the director of admissions is also public relations and the ties between these men and the public relations office should be close.

6. *Study present policies to make certain that they do not violate the principles of good public relations.* Have any methods, activities or policies created ill-will and if so why? What features of the institution's life and curriculum should be given greater emphasis? What, exactly, is the feeling of the institution's various publics toward it? These are only three of many searching questions for which honest answers must be sought.

7. *Weigh every proposed policy to avoid hasty or unwise action.* Dissension in the faculty, revolt among the students, gossip in the community and distrust among the alumni can result, and have resulted, from policies ill-timed or hastily adopted. Public relations, through precedent, measured judgment and research, makes these consequences rare, if not unnecessary.

8. *Educate everyone to his part in the public relations program.* The student who stoops to vandalism, the president who fails to thank a donor, and the instructor who grouches in a downtown drugstore may undo in a day the good public relations work of years. *Public relations is not the job of a single individual—it must be a way of life for an entire institution.*

9. *Consider every possibility for improving public relations WITH each of the institution's various publics.* Possibly, newspapers, radio and publications are already being used. But publicity is their major objective and publicity alone is not enough. Are visitors treated courteously? Are dormitory rooms attractive, well-lighted and well-ventilated? Is everything being done to assure complete understanding between town and gown? Are parents kept informed of the standing of their children? Are alumni thanked or congratulated when the opportunity arises? Do staff members have proper health and recreational benefits? These and a thousand other questions must be considered and answered in the affirmative before the public relations program becomes effectual.

10. *Consider every possibility for improving the institution's public relations THROUGH its various publics.* The major objectives of every public relations program, frankly speaking, is to convert the institution's many publics into agents who will speak and act in its behalf. When the public relations of an institution WITH its publics are good, members of those publics will, in many cases, speak and act for it out of their own interest and enthusiasm. By suggestion, many of them will do even more—the alumni, for instance, to get new students and additional funds; the community to promote institutional projects; and the business man to assist in placing alumni.

11. *Provide adequate funds and personnel for the job.* Although this step is mentioned last, it is by no means the least important. The public relations budget for any particular institution will depend upon the needs of the institution itself, upon the soundness of present policies, upon the work likely to be required for interpreting new policies and upon the extent of the efforts to be made for improving public relations with and through the various publics. It must be remembered, however, that the program can be expected to succeed only if the institution is ready to give it adequate financial backing.

Careful consideration of these eleven steps will reveal that public relations is largely a matter of exercising ordinary horse sense. Unfortunately, however, horse sense comes slowly to us human beings and then only when there has been a great deal of serious thinking, often coupled with worry, disappointment, criticism and regret. An experienced public relations director, alert to the problems of higher education, can contribute in many ways to the thinking requisite for reducing worry, disappointment, criticism and regret to a minimum at his institution.

THE SCOPE OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

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THE Administration of the College is interested in developing a program in athletics that will contribute to the education of the entire student body. Such a program should emphasize the need of physical fitness for every individual; it should enable him to acquire skill in sports that would carry over when his college career has terminated; and it should acquaint him with the ideals of American sportsmanship. In brief, this means that the College will afford every student, to the limit of his ability, an opportunity to obtain instruction in the various physical sports and games and to participate in intramural and intercollegiate athletics.

The College is not interested in any policy which, because of undue emphasis upon athletics, makes no positive contribution to the education and development of those who participate. The program of athletics must be of such a character that every student will have an opportunity to benefit from it. Thus participation in athletics will mean for every student not only the acquisition of a skill and the opportunity of representing his college on the playing field, but will teach him through experience the necessity of clean play and fair play under the pressure of competition. This is the essence of all sportsmanship in this country and once gained it will carry on into all the activities of living.

If this be the aim of the athletic program of the College it follows that the College does not and cannot regard its athletic program as a commercial activity. The principal purpose of the College is to train and to educate its students. Every activity, therefore, should contribute to this end and should be subordinated to it. Of all the voluntary, extra-curricular activities of the College, athletics is by far the most popular and reaches far more students than any other. In recent years more than forty per cent of our students have participated in intercollegiate athletics. This is a healthy situation and should be maintained.

The College believes that its status as an institution for the

educating and training of young men and women bears no relation to, nor dependence upon, the records of its various athletic teams. In consequence its athletic activities, like all other activities, should be patterned to its size and its resources. An undue expenditure of its funds for athletic purposes would reflect adversely upon, and soon weaken, its educational program. To support and maintain a program of intercollegiate athletics out of proportion to the size and resources of the institution would mean either doing so at the expense of the primary, educational purposes of the College, or commercializing certain sports such as football or basketball.

The commercialization of college athletics leads to involvements of a nature which the College wishes to avoid. In order to participate in big-time football students must be induced to attend the institution by the offer of attractive financial assistance. The larger the ambition, the larger must be the inducements. The greater the strength of opponents, the larger the number of athletes who must be recruited. The larger the number of candidates for the team, the larger and more expert must be the coaching staffs. To maintain this huge organism winning teams must be had at any price. On the campus irritating pressures tend to develop: to admit barely qualified students, to reorganize the curriculum downward, to revise the scholastic conditions of remaining in college. In many colleges and universities attempting to maintain such a system the athletes tend to become a caste, set apart from the student body. The pressure to win becomes terrific, and with the long and rigorous practice sessions, it becomes more and more difficult for the student, no matter how well-intentioned, to keep up with his academic requirements. In time education, and even sport itself, becomes a drudgery.

Since the Director of Athletics at the College is expected to work out a program that will touch every able-bodied young man on the campus, and since he is expected to encourage all students to participate in intramural and intercollegiate sports to the end that such activity may make a real contribution to their education, he and his assistants should not be judged by their ability to produce winning teams. The College freely recognizes, also, that it has neither the financial resources nor the numerous student body to maintain intercollegiate athletics on a large-scale

basis; consequently it does not expect its Athletic Director to enter into competition with those who do.

The College does not wish to withdraw from intercollegiate athletics, nor by a process of attrition to weaken their popularity among the students. It fully recognizes the benefits that flow from participation in intramural and intercollegiate athletics. But it places no premium on winning as such, and wishes to emancipate its program from the necessity of dependence upon gate receipts. Then it can be free to judge the program of athletics by the contribution it makes to the education and character of its students.

THE SHAPE OF THINGS TO COME ON THE CAMPUS OF TOMORROW

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IN these latter years it has become fashionable to trace the shape of things to come. In time of peace, we talked of the coming war; in time of war we talk of the coming peace. In the college of today we plan for the college of tomorrow. Such a preoccupation with the future can become a neurotic escape from the tangled problems of the world as it now is, but we run that danger only when we conceive the future in Utopian terms, of a different stuff from the real world, and unconnected with the present. Soberly seen, tomorrow begins today, and in the trends and forces already at work, a corner of tomorrow's world is edging itself into this one.

Therefore, as a kind of check and balance to our eager imagination, it becomes wise to point out that tomorrow's college will be different only in the ways which social dynamics now at work make imperative and inescapable.

For the past two decades "the higher learning" has been in constant change. The war, I think, has done little more than accelerate the pace. The restudy of curriculum and of educational aims started in earnest about fifteen years ago. That movement brought us the mechanism of the Upper and Lower Division, and it gave all trembling seniors the precious gift of the comprehensive examination. I must not neglect to mention all the aptitude, placement and I.Q. tests it gave the freshmen nor the system of freshmen counseling that emerged out of this same period. Other colleges saw the development of the Hiram plan of studying courses in consecutive concentrations of nine weeks rather than in the simultaneous study of several courses in general use. It saw the Antioch plan with its alternation of school and work. The same era saw many another change to witness the spirit of self-examination and critical open-mindedness which has been working all this time.

Two years ago last June all American colleges embarked upon accelerated programs. Formerly it has taken four long years to

make a Bachelor of Arts; now we could do it in two years and eight months. Whereas it had required eight or nine years to make a Doctor of Medicine, we can now manufacture one in five or six. In accelerating the students, we now discover, we were also accelerating the faculty and administration and that we were quickening numerous changes in educational philosophy and institutional policy, so that a transition which might have required a decade was now accomplished in a year or two years. If we could go back to the form of the prewar college tomorrow morning, it would be impossible to return to the mind of the prewar college! That has been profoundly altered.

The Army Specialized Training Programs and the College Naval Training Units, needless to say, have altered the whole form and much of the content of higher education, and even when the units are gone, their influences will linger to make lasting changes in the schools that housed and trained them.

Nothing in the history of American higher education can compare with the importance of the "G. I. Bill of Rights" recently enacted by Congress and committed to the Bureau of Veterans Affairs for administration. Millions of men and billions of tax dollars will be poured into the colleges, as interrupted courses of study are taken up again, or college is entered for the first time by hundreds of thousands who were prevented by the draft from following their cherished college careers. The Congress has deemed the colleges so important in its postwar planning that it is willing to spend an average of \$1100 per year per person to all veterans who care to qualify for this opportunity. Perhaps as many as 2,000,000 men will take advantage of it. Our colleges and universities have never had that many students enrolled at any one time and they are not now equipped either to house them or to instruct them. The administration of this bill may be expected to prolong the wartime transition of the colleges to the year 1950, at least. Planning for the gigantic task of reconversion to peacetime education must be done now, but the full plan cannot be put into effect before 1950.

Our survey of some of the factors or forces at work in shaping the colleges is not complete without a glance backward at the depression, that dark monster of ignoble memory which lived from the year 1929 to the year 1939. This black giant delivered

several blows upon the body of college education, but his most serious thrusts are "telegraphed punches" which are just beginning to land.

The one thing which the depression did more than anything else was to expose the weakness of a merely technical or specialized training. The skilled man or woman who could do one thing and only one thing was at a disadvantage before a man or woman of general education who could adapt to changing vocational opportunities with intelligent flexibility. Specialized training is suited to a stable social order, but it is soon weighed and found wanting in an unstable social order. College alumni untrained to face questions of value in ethics, economics and politics are helpless before a world in which questions of meaning and value have to be settled before anything else can be settled.

If the depression was a relentless critic of pragmatic and utilitarian trends in college education, then President Robert Maynard Hutchins of Chicago University was its mouthpiece. Becoming head of that University at the age of 29, after he had already been dean of Yale Law School, he began to say some cutting things about universities and colleges. He said that students in them study a clutter of facts without learning the meaning of the facts or seeing how they fit together to make a pattern of any kind. He said that specialization of the curriculum into divisions and departments and branches of branches and courses within branches had proceeded to the point where one educated man in one branch could not understand what another educated man was talking about—and this in spite of the fact that both were human beings and were intended to live in the same world and help make one social order. He accused the colleges of training men to make a living when they were not trained to make a life. He even said that one could expect almost anything from the college except the ability to think and engage in the intellectual life.

With a good deal that he was saying, American educators found themselves in agreement. We did need to see things whole as we had not been doing. We did need to learn more about critical and creative thinking than we were. We did need to see the meaning of the facts we had been accumulating and memorizing.

Then President Hutchins made his fatal blunder. He proposed the removal of all vocational training from the university

and the placing of it in technical and professional "institutes" to be entered *after* college. He proposed a return to a curriculum of logic and philosophy designed to recreate the classical mind by indoctrinating everyone in the metaphysics of Aristotle as seen through the system of Thomas Aquinas. And he began to act in accordance with his new ideas. He hired professors who agreed with him, while being forced to keep others who were steeped in pragmatism and instrumentalism. He even started a college, St. John's College at Annapolis, Maryland, and made a curriculum without any electives based on the reading and mastery of 100 prescribed books and he appointed his own president to administer it. This same man recently threw a bombshell into the hall of educators by announcing a two-year college degree of Bachelor of Arts. Some of his pyrotechnics are beginning to backfire upon him, for just recently 250 of his professors who have little stomach for the classical tradition and the metaphysics of Aristotle, joined in a denunciation and revolt. What we are witnessing at Chicago is a clash of opposites in educational philosophy, which clash will reverberate throughout the whole structure of American college education. It is far from being a local row.

Until now we have been considering some of the backgrounds of future college education. It has been necessary to see these before looking for the institution which will emerge from them. Now let us pass on to our prediction.

First, the years immediately after the armistice will find colleges bursting with students. Enrolments will increase enormously. This would have been true without the G. I. Bill of Rights. With that source of educational subsidy it will be doubly true. After the first initial influx, say at the end of the first five years, the enrolment will subside toward the prewar level, and a great many colleges will find that they have overbuilt and overexpanded. As a result, many small, private colleges will go down.

Second, the death of numerous small colleges because of financial reverses in the 1950's will combine with the new governmental stake in the universities and colleges to produce a deeper and deeper penetration of politics into higher education. The state and controls devised by the state are likely to have more and more to do with all our life, our educational activities included. Hav-

ing learned to use the colleges for the purposes of war, the state will be less reluctant to command them for its purposes in the peace. The temptation to use these same schools for ideological and propaganda purposes—that is, the tendency to throttle free enquiry and unbiased scholarship—will grow or decline in direct proportion to the intensity of the social crisis which may be generated. What one sees of Governor Talmadge's interference with the state university in Georgia and of Governor Neely's arbitrary dismissals in West Virginia University is not too reassuring at this point.

A number of private schools with great toughness and ingenuity will be able to hold themselves free of such governmental regulation, and to such schools we must look for most of the intellectual pioneering of the future.

To support this prediction, I should like to quote Professor P. A. Sorokin, head of the department of sociology at Harvard. He writes in *Man and Society in Calamity*: "Private educational institutions will tend to disappear in favor of public or state-controlled institutions. Their autonomy from government control will decrease. The educational curricula and policies will necessarily change with each replacement of one governmental faction by another. As the factions will be shifting fairly rapidly, and at the same time sharply differing from one another, the programs and curricula will be perpetually upset and increasingly chaotic." (p. 314)

Third, I predict the battle of the poles in educational policy. Following Professor Theodore M. Green of Princeton, I refer to four pairs of opposites:

a. Narrow vocational training *versus* mere academic instruction, useless to life. We can characterize this tension as the pull toward the extreme of vocationalism gone mad and intellectualism gone mad. I do not believe extreme vocationalism will stand up to the future because the occupational scene will be shifting and because we need socially minded citizens who will see beyond their own specialty and their own pay check. I do not believe an elite class of cultured gentlemen, whose hands are not soiled by toil, will be able to help us, because we need not two classes of society, thinkers and workers, but one class—thoughtful workmen. Nevertheless, institutions will spring up to express and cater to both extremes.

b. Academic *laissez faire* *versus* academic regimentation, i.e., "leaving the student entirely to his own devices (in an unrestricted elective system) as against the opposite extreme of imposing upon him a cut and dried curriculum in which he has no choice," as St. John's has done and Mr. Hutchins would do for all of us. This tension expresses the general movement of our world in economics and politics away from irresponsible freedom toward the opposite pole of extreme authority and control from above. If the one gave us chaos, the other will give us a dull and uncreative uniformity which will carry us straight back to the barren formalism of medieval days.

c. Irresponsible academic "objectivity" *versus* dogmatic indoctrination and propaganda. On the one hand, there will be the effort to perpetuate the fallacy that education can divorce the intellect from the convictions and decisions of a responsible moral agent, and on the other hand, there will be the attempt to clamp down a system of political and social values from above and to secure blind and uninformed commitment to that system of values.

d. Secular indifference to religion *versus* religious intolerance. Most education in our time has been guilty of an implied anti-religious prejudice. It has expressed that prejudice by excluding religion from its curriculum or by restricting it, thus saying by its action: "Religion is not so important as these other things." We are going to swing away from this in a great many schools and there is danger of an opposite extreme, in a spirit of dogmatism and fanaticism which is as great a sin against religious open-mindedness as that of which secularism has been guilty.

It is clear that the creative path for the liberal arts college will be the middle road between these extremes, and it is equally clear that some of the colleges all the time and all of the colleges some of the time will exemplify one pole or another of these opposites. For instance, in the years following the war it seems probable that the vocational emphasis will predominate. To quote Sorokin again, "Ever-increasing emphasis will be given to the training of practical technicians of war and revolution, . . . of hygiene and medicine, and of industry and farming . . ." (p. 313). There will be a later reaction away from this utilitarianism and the reaction itself may be extreme.

"Later on, after the end of the calamities, this practical Philistinism will be powerfully counteracted by the opposite trend toward deeper, more thoughtful, more adequate systems for the cultivation of creative human genius in all fields, and especially in those of religion, ethics, humanities and in the social sciences. All of this will be of a less clerical, less superficial and less specialized nature than in the transitory period." (p. 314.)

My fourth prediction is this: Liberal education, redefined and clarified, will reassert itself. This means that we will get a rather clear idea about what a liberally educated man ought to know, that the courses of a curriculum will be tied together as they have not been in a century, that the elective system will be sharply restricted although not completely abolished, that literature, religion and philosophy will acquire a new flavor, that the number of courses offered the undergraduate will decline abruptly and that many courses now given in college will be reserved for the graduate and professional school.

We can even press a little further and predict the outlines of a liberal arts curriculum. Although we have praised liberal education copiously in recent years we have grown more and more vague about its content. Assemblies of college presidents and educators have often done nothing but add more fog to our understanding of the issue. Professor Green of Princeton was therefore ingenious when he asked such a gathering if the educators could not agree upon a picture of a man who is *not* liberally educated. This is what he said:

"Would you agree, I wonder, that a person who is quite illiterate and inarticulate; ignorant of all the important facts regarding himself and his environment and devoid of all intellectual curiosity; insensitive to all aesthetic, moral and religious values; unintegrated, provincial, and prejudiced, the slave of social convention and the easy victim of propaganda; with no sense of social responsibility and no ability to contribute to the needs of society in any way—would you agree that such an individual was *not* liberally educated?"

He then turns to the positive side of the picture:

" . . . Would you also agree that it is the proper function of liberal education to make men and women as literate and articulate as possible; to help them acquire important information

regarding themselves and the world in which they live, and more particularly, to know how to acquire new information when the need arises; to cultivate to the utmost their appreciation of beauty in art and in nature, to acquire a sensitivity for human values and human relationships, and, above all, to come to understand the meaning of religious communion and the power of Christian love; to become, so far as possible, fully integrated persons, at one with themselves and in vital relation to their society and the spiritual order; to rise above enslaving provincialisms and to see life in a wise and humane perspective; and thus to take their place in a democratic society as responsible citizens fully aware of the duties and privileges of human freedom?"

Liberal education after such a pattern is a high goal. We will reach it in a few exceptional colleges in ten years and in the majority of them we may reach it in a generation. The chief obstacle to its realization is the fact that few members of the faculties of these schools have themselves acquired such a liberal education. Before we can proceed very far we shall have to educate the educators! This is by no means impossible, but it is difficult.

Up until now college life all across America has been marvelously uniform and homogeneous. In the years just ahead there will be variety and conflict of educational theory and methods. Extremes will emerge. Perhaps some entirely new type of institution will appear as new and as indigenous to our age as the monastery was to the middle ages. It will be exciting and exhilarating to live and work in a college, or to watch it as it makes its way across the years ahead.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE TEACHING PROFESSION

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THERE is no final agreement as yet about the place of the university in the field of teaching practice and attitudes differ widely not only as between one country and another but also between one university and another in the same country, and the debate continues. Indeed, in many countries it is likely to be pursued with added vigor and point in the near future.

The questions I wish to raise here concern :

- (a) The education of the intending teacher.
- (b) His professional preparation.
- (c) Systematic study of the many problems arising in the effort to provide modern societies with the means of education to an adequate standard and in sufficient variety.

It is hardly necessary to stress the great importance of this last point. Especially in societies which have enjoyed a high degree of security and continuity and so have been able to rely very comfortably upon the deliverances of tradition, the circumstances of the new age will call for a much intensified awareness, a far more explicit self-consciousness, in the provision and administration of educational opportunity for the population. In due measure, this will be true of all societies and it will not be easy to maintain that universities have no concern with the sustained effort of cooperative thought that will thus be evoked.

To guard against misconception I find it necessary to say that I cannot claim any extensive or intimate knowledge of the inner life and working of universities, though I have taken part in the organization of one new university and the re-drafting of the statutes of an older one. My actual work as a professor has been done very largely in universities in the British Dominions, while everywhere it has proceeded more or less on the fringes of the main structure. Sometimes it has been with undergraduates devoting part of their time to professional preparation as teachers, more often with young graduates devoting a full university year to that purpose. Again, sometimes it has been regarded as in-

tegral to the work of the university, sometimes as a not very welcome or highly appreciated appendage to it.

Hence my wish to confine this brief paper to a discussion of questions arising in my own particular field. It should be emphasized that I am offering a purely personal view.

It would be wrong and unjust to suggest that the university has ever seriously neglected its duty of educating the teacher. What is needed now, at least in some countries, is a more full and frank recognition that this duty is central to the university's function, and sometimes almost necessary to its very existence. There are university institutions where the Faculty of Arts in particular would be thin indeed were it not for the presence of intending teachers. Yet such institutions are often curiously shy in recognizing the fact and shaping their attitudes accordingly.

On the whole question experience has led me to form three fairly definite conclusions:

(a) That there is no sound reason why the university should be called upon to adapt its curricula or its requirements for a first degree specifically to meet the needs of intending teachers. If, for instance, there is need for the provision of honors degrees for which two or even three subjects may be studied to a common level, in addition to the more specialized single-subject honors, then this should be regarded as a general form of educational provision, not as a special concession to intending teachers. Similarly, if the university decides that the humanizing and broadening of the student's outlook requires that he should undertake certain studies to that end, then this too is a common educational requirement, not a special and peculiar discipline for the budding teacher. In a word, if the university provides adequately and liberally for the generous education of its student body, then it provides quite fittingly for the intending teacher. I would add, however, that in the future we shall need a considerable number of teachers whose university education has been gained in faculties other than that of Arts, a faculty from which, at present, teachers are too exclusively drawn.

(b) It is wholly impracticable, and on various grounds quite undesirable, that all teachers should be required to graduate. I sympathize with the motives of those who support this conten-

tion—no teacher can be too well educated—but I dissent entirely from this practical expression of it.

(c) There is, however, another and largely unrecognized way in which the university has an obligation for the education of the teacher. Why should it be assumed that the university has an obligation only to those who become undergraduates and take its degree? If, quite rightly as I think, it refuses to assume the burden of enrolling them all, is it therefore absolved from all duty to the non-graduating mass? I cannot think so, especially in view of the kind of standards that have now to be aimed at in the education of the people at large and the level of qualifications that this presupposes in the teacher. The university is above all things the guardian of standards—standards both of teaching and of attainment in students. Sooner or later, this guardianship will have to be extended to the whole body of those qualifying as teachers, and a way will have to be found of doing this without requiring all alike to graduate. A national teaching body consisting partly of those who have had a full university course and partly of those who are virtually untouched by the university will not be a satisfactory thing to contemplate in the world towards which we are moving.

The point I wish to insist upon here concerns the general use of the word "training" and the implications which so often accompany such usage. With all the emphasis I can command I would urge that either the word be dropped altogether or be subjected to a radical re-interpretation. In England, perhaps also elsewhere, the mischievous associations which have gathered around the term are derived from a social rather than from an educational source.

Training was the process to which the humble teacher of the children of the poor was subjected in days when it was thought socially subversive to educate him. The influences of this tradition are still with us, accounting no doubt for the uncritical dogma that education and training are quite distinct things. Military authorities are discovering that this is not so in preparation for war. We have there discovered that the processes we call respectively education and training run into one another and depend on one another in inextricable fashion.

So will it be in preparation for the skilled activities of peace.

Training is not something superimposed upon education by the cutting-edge which makes education specifically serviceable. Is there anything but academic convention and the influence of an outmoded tradition to support the uncritical and mischievous distinction that is commonly drawn?

Consider the case of the teacher. The purely practical exercises by which he acquires skill may well be left for the schools to provide. But the university cannot fairly divest itself of responsibility for the cognate theoretical studies on the ground that these fall under training and not education. If it attempts to do so it commits itself to some such proposition as this: that when an undergraduate is dissecting dog-fish in the zoology laboratory or analyzing salts in the chemistry laboratory, that is education; but when a graduate or a student in a teachers' training college is studying the causes of backwardness in children or the influences that have shaped the English educational system, that is something quite different from education, namely training. In face of such an implied commitment one is led to suspect that there is much more of inherited prejudice than of critical reason behind the supposed distinction.

In all professional preparation, I am sure we should be on much sounder ground if we regarded what is called training as really just education in a more specific and concentrated phase of its development.

I have already given reasons for believing that the needs of the immediate future will call for much more developed provision for the sustained and organized study of education as one of the most complex and comprehensive forms of community action. The university is by no means the only center for such studies. But because of the variety of relevant resources there concentrated and especially because of the *level* upon which such studies can be pursued it must occupy a foremost place in any satisfactory plan. In the field of colonial education, where the problems are presented much more in the raw as it were, we are finding how wide and diversified the range of cooperation needs to be in arriving at solutions. Anthropologists, linguists, economists, medical men, psychologists and various kinds of technicians have all to be called in. Is the situation any different in principle even in a highly civilized society? It may be that in relation to the

demands of the kind of world we shall soon be facing we are all primitives now.

An important practical point arises here. A university is hardly entitled to prepare students for any profession unless within its walls the problems of that profession are being systematically studied. The condition is reasonably well fulfilled in the case of such professions as medicine and engineering. It has hardly begun to be fulfilled in that of teaching.

I should myself wish to add that it does not follow from this that the university is making the most effective or even the most characteristic use of its resources by taking a handful of young graduates and putting them through the rudiments of preparation for teaching. Though something like this constitutes the main effort of British universities at the moment it is reasonably to be expected that in the near future they will make a much more adequate and fruitful use of their resources by engaging in studies and researches on a more extensive scale and by suitable provision for advanced senior studies by experienced teachers and others temporarily released from school service.

In all this field of activity the precise function and duty of the university remains still to be determined in any detail. But I am myself fully convinced that what is now likely to be demanded of the university is not that it should transform itself into something quite other than we have hitherto known it or even deviate from the path of its own logical development. The call is rather for some reinterpretation of the already accepted range of its obligations without any departure from the established principle upon which those obligations rest. For like science itself, the university cannot but follow wherever its own genius and the characteristic stimuli of the age lead it. It comes now more than ever into the main stream of history. So we may do well to remind ourselves that it originated in the need to provide qualified teachers, fitted to hold a general commission, the *jus ubique descendendi* of a *stadium generale*.

DONORS' ANNUITIES AND COLLEGE SECURITY

WILLIAM ERNEST WELD

PRESIDENT, WELLS COLLEGE

THIS statement on donors' annuities is addressed to the presidents and treasurers of colleges and universities affiliated with the Association of American Colleges. It is written out of a feeling of responsibility towards the member colleges, arising from my membership on the Committee on Insurance and Annuities. For a number of years, I have done my share of inspecting colleges seeking accreditation by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the Middle States Association. A number of these colleges have entered into gift annuity contracts without taking the most elementary precautions. As a result they have found that, in the heavy seas of financial depression, gift annuities can be millstones rather than life-preservers. Having embarked on a program for securing such gifts, some colleges, after entering into a few contracts, have ceased to seek additional gifts. As a result, they have not had the "safety in numbers" that comes in any form of insurance.

The discussion of this subject is timely. We have been told repeatedly (and we believe it) that the era of large gifts to colleges is ended. We are told that we must "widen the base" by securing a large number of donors whose individual gifts are comparatively small. Some have made a virtue of necessity and told the world that the college will be safer if it secures a large number of small gifts than it has been in the past when it has depended upon a few large gifts.

There are many friends of each college who could make annuity gifts but who could not afford to make outright contributions. It seems to me, therefore, that donors' annuities are likely to be more important in the future than before the war.

What are the precautions that each college should take if it accepts this plan of raising money? I shall attempt to be brief, even though I may seem to be dogmatic.

The precautions are:

1. Study the books, the articles and the experience of other colleges before publishing any statement of your plan. There are

actuarial firms of experience and capability who will give expert advice on plans for annuity contracts. (Names supplied on request.) One of these firms should be consulted. Also, study the laws governing gift annuities in your own state.

2. The annual rates to be paid on annuity gifts should not be as high as the insurance companies are able to pay, but about twenty-five per cent less. A safe scale of rates for colleges might range from 4 per cent at fifty to 6.6 per cent at eighty years of age.

3. Probably it is better not to accept annuity gifts from people under fifty years of age.

4. For administrative reasons, it is wise to place a minimum limitation on the size of the gift, at least \$500, but better yet \$1000.

5. If possible, gifts should be secured in cash. If accepted in securities, the market value of the securities should determine the total of the gift on which interest is to be paid. If the gift is in the form of real estate, great care should be taken. It may be wise to refuse the gift. But if accepted, it should be on the basis of assessed values of the current date and should be turned into cash as soon as possible.

6. The gift itself or any part of it (unless reinsured) should not be used by the college to meet current expense or to erect buildings as long as the annuitant is living. Upon the death of the donor, the principal of the gift or the residue thereof may have to be used to maintain the legal reserve required for the total of all annuity gifts received.

7. All funds received under annuity agreements should be invested in those securities which are legal for insurance companies. At the present time, the calculated return on such investments should not be greater than three per cent.

8. All gift annuity funds should be segregated from other college funds.

9. Should the college reinsure its gift-annuity contracts with some insurance company? The advantage is that the residue after insuring can be used at once. The disadvantage is that the insurance company will take such a large part of the gift if the annuitant is between the ages of fifty and seventy. It is the writer's opinion that, if the above precautions are taken, reinsur-

ance will not be necessary. There may be certain contracts which should be reinsured. For example, when a contract is large relative to the sum total of all gifts, then the college does not enjoy the "safety in numbers" and should protect the entire fund by insuring the large contract.

In closing, I would like to refer again to the fact that donors' annuities are likely to assume even greater importance in the future than they have in the past. I have found no figures later than June 30, 1936. I have no way of estimating the present situation. Eight years ago, from the data that was then available, there were three hundred thirty-five institutions of higher education which reported \$42,028,871 of funds subject to life annuity agreements. Will the war and heavy taxation on large incomes tend to lead the colleges more than ever to consider this form of securing gifts? From a purely *a priori* estimate, I would answer this question in the affirmative. The precautions that I have enumerated are the ones which the carefully financed colleges have actually taken. If care is exercised as to rates, investments, etc., actuarial statistics show that on the average fifty per cent of the gifts received under annuity contracts should ultimately be available for college uses.

HOW TO DETERMINE THE RETIREMENT DATE

HENRY JAMES

CHAIRMAN, TEACHERS INSURANCE AND ANNUITY ASSOCIATION

THE purpose of what follows is to offer a few notes that may interest college officers who deal with problems of which the title will only too readily remind them. My warrant for supposing that I can make any contribution to the discussion of these thorny questions is that officers of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association, including myself, have corresponded with a great many college teachers who have retired or who are about to retire, and also with college and university executives; and that we frequently discuss their problems with such persons. I have lately had occasion to review all recent correspondence of this character and have talked with a number of people. For years I have tried to notice whatever is said publicly about pension systems and retirements in the academic world. Observations made in this way cannot be forced into statistical shape. They do not warrant precise statements such as "So many people vote for this as against so many who vote for that." Furthermore, it may be better worth while to try to understand what it is about each type of retirement procedure that commends it or makes it objectionable than it would be to try to count noses. So it is impressions that I report here, and in reporting personal impressions, it seems best to write in the first person singular. Thus I need not be afraid of embarrassing my associates; and I may the more successfully encourage or provoke others to express different views frankly and freely.

College teachers appear to divide into three camps according as they prefer one or another of three types of retirement system. (A) Some think that it is a mistake to make it a rule that everybody must retire from active service on reaching a certain age. (B) Others take an opposite view and advocate the obligatory observance of one and the same retirement age for all members of the staff of the same institution. (C) To a third camp belong those who favor a process of gradual retirement; this is often described as "tapering off." (D) Another suggestion, which has hitherto attracted little attention but on which I want to dwell

later, is that an ideal ordering of retirements would apprise everybody of the date of his retirement in time for him to make adequate preparations before his powers begin to be impaired.

Although I cannot measure the sizes of these camps, my own present impression is that those who object to making everybody retire at the same age outnumber slightly, but not greatly, those who object to discriminations by institutional authority respecting retirement age. If votes could be counted and could be classified by age groups, I would expect them to show that the camp that favors rules which facilitate the prolongation of service contains more teachers who have passed middle life than does the camp which favors an inflexible age limit. My impressions also lend color to a supposition that one would naturally make: *viz.* that those persons who have become dependent upon the daily stimuli of familiar duties and those who lack imagination and self-confidence about fresh undertakings and independent occupations, scholarly or other, tend to prefer any system under which their habitual work may be prolonged. Those who advocate "tapering off" might be less numerous than they seem to be if this were not, as I shall point out later, a relatively unfamiliar type of retirement procedure.

A. Persons who argue against forcing everybody to retire at the same age refer to facts and arguments that are familiar to us all. They point to the undeniable differences between individuals; they quote medical testimony about the discrepancies between physiological age and chronological age, and they mention Titian, Gladstone, Justice Holmes and numerous other men and women who performed conspicuously valuable work at some very advanced age. These physiological truths and illustrative life histories are impressive. Some people obviously dry up very early, but others do continue to be strong and fresh-minded into their eighties or even longer. Anybody who has to make a prophetic appraisal or decision in a particular case will want to accord the benefit of the doubt. Certainly everybody wants all who know him to adopt a sanguine view of the probabilities of his own old age. This natural desire influences thinking and feeling. Some of the statements I have read and listened to have given me the impression that their authors regard a professor's "chair" as a kind of personal property; they "feel," although

few say it in plain words, that a professor has at least a right to occupy his chair until, at whatever age, he is ready to relinquish it of his own initiative or until he has shown noticeable signs that his faculties have begun to decay.¹

The argument against retiring everybody at the same age is so simple and familiar that no more need be said to explain it. But the thoughts of those who prefer a uniform age of retirement are not so readily understood and call for illustration.

B. The main reason why persons from the second camp favor a uniform retirement age is that they dislike or fear discrimination. If in a particular institution it is either the rule or the practice to retire some men at 65, others at 70 or 75, others not until later, some of its teachers are more likely to suppose that a disparaging reflection is cast upon those who are retired at the earlier ages than to consider that a compliment is paid to those who are invited to continue longer. Thus one correspondent said, "I do want to emphasize, however, my utter disapproval of discrimination in retirement by which different men are retired at different ages. It is sure to cause jealousy and resentment and make the teacher always uncertain of his fate. The only fair method in my opinion is an arbitrary, predetermined retirement age for all men with no 'ifs' or 'ands' about it." Another correspondent said, "I believe that an arbitrarily determined age for retirement is better than a more elastic arrangement in the long run. I think that as good an illustration as any may be taken from [a large and leading university] where I know positively that there has been considerable dissatisfaction among certain men who have been retired earlier than others of the same age. To suggest comparisons among colleagues in those last years, and in so public a way, seems to me very unfortunate. Universities would lose something by imposing a uniform date of retirement, but they would gain in avoiding the ill feeling which results from the other plan." In an article "The Professor Emeritus" (*School and Society*, November 18, 1939), W. C. Ruediger reported a correspondent as saying, "There should be no toleration of a system whereby the university authorities were allowed to drop men—say any time they felt like it from 65 on. In individual cases it would have its

¹ This is a conception of academic tenure which accords with certain tendencies of the times. Some people applaud it; some dislike it. I am not concerned with the argument; I am merely noting the fact.

advantages. As far as that is concerned it would be a good thing to drop some people at 45. But the actual workings of the system would destroy morale; and if I were a president no consideration of individual advantage here and there would induce me to introduce it or to tolerate it if introduced by a predecessor."

This expresses a feeling similar to that which makes most college teachers favor a salary scale that is uniform according to rank and to dislike irregular salary adjustments even when they reward exceptional and acknowledged eminence or when they take account of personal needs.

It is evident that these objections to an elastic retirement system apply equally whether the institutional retirement rules say that the governing authority may retire anybody at any time after he has reached a certain age, or say that everybody shall retire at a specified age unless he is asked to continue in active service for a while longer.

C. Those who recommend a "tapering off" procedure remark justly that a man who can no longer carry a full load of work may still be able to do some things as well or better than ever. They do not mention the element of discrimination. I infer that they would say that no personal reflection would be implied if all aging professors were relieved of some of their burdens and were at the same time asked to carry on with some work. The recommendation appears to assume that all will continue some activity, and those who advance it do not say what is to be done about professors who, when the time to begin tapering off arrives, cannot wisely be asked to assume any further responsibilities whatever. In practice, the element of discrimination would intrude itself into the "tapering off" procedure.

Again, those who recommend "tapering off" commonly make three large assumptions without seeming to examine the inherent difficulties.

One assumption is that salary and work would be reduced proportionately. If the transition from full work to complete retirement were to make only one compromise, i.e., half time and half pay, this assumption might encounter few difficulties. But if tapering were to be arranged by various stages, discrimination would occur. And how would salary reductions be measured? There is no yardstick by which the value of the services rendered

by different elderly and partly retired professors can be measured. Adjustments downward from full salary would surely create what would be resented as inequities. Why, for instance, should one professor teach half time for half pay and have no energy left for the writing of his *magnum opus* while another does no teaching and receives a retiring allowance equivalent to half pay?

The second assumption is that it would be more considerate and generally more acceptable to reduce income gradually than to cause one drastic descent from full pay to retirement allowance. I venture to doubt this. Suppose the salary reductions begin before the age at which the college would, if it employed one of the non-tapering retirement systems, call for complete retirement. Then the aggregate life income would often be reduced. Reasons for commencing severe economies, like changing the place of residence, would be less compelling; and insofar as the part-time professor felt that he owed it to himself and his position to maintain a certain manner of life, he would indeed be tempted into untimely expenditure.

The third trustful assumption is that the institution and the particular professor would find it easy to agree about what work is to be dropped and what work is to be carried on. Suppose the individual is both a teacher and a dean or the chairman of his department. Which of his duties are to be tapered away? It appears sometimes to be the fact that younger members of the faculty, and perhaps all others, would be glad to have a veteran continue to do a little teaching, but would be reluctant to have him retain a dominating influence over department policy. Yet these veterans are apt to be the very ones who cling jealously to their authority and care relatively little about teaching. The A.A.U.P. chapter at one college discussed a suggestion that emeriti should be engaged to give a course or two and adopted a recommendation that provision for such arrangements should be made. But a proviso was added that a year should elapse before such courses were given. I will not venture to interpret this proviso; but it arrests one's attention.

Another difficulty which seems often to be overlooked is that "tapering off" the salary would reduce the ultimate retirement allowance wherever it is fixed as a percentage of terminal service-

pay. To cite only one example, this is the way in which Carnegie free pensions are determined. Tax-supported institutions might find that public laws defining "service" and defining "pensions" would present obstacles. Iowa is one state in which this difficulty has appeared.

"Tapering off" seems to be rather unusual. There have doubtless been many particular teachers who have been allowed or encouraged to cut down their work in consideration of a reduction of their salaries; but their cases have occurred in all age groups, and these cases alone offer little support to the idea that the superannuation problem can be solved systematically by having retirements effected *gradatin*. To be sure there have been some institutions where there were no properly financed pension systems or where public laws made it difficult to pay pensions *eo nomine*. There, aged professors have been put on half pay and half time, and half time has probably been leniently interpreted.

Teachers whose pleas for "tapering off" have come to my notice usually argue *a priori* and almost none speak as if they had watched "tapering off" in operation. Yet there have been some experiments. These deserve closer scrutiny than I have been able to give them. I can do no more than cite enough testimony to show that there are different opinions where "tapering off" has been tried. At Lehigh University the retirement plan calls for "tapering off" between 65 and 70, is mandatory, and salaries and duties are tapered off at about two stages before final retirement. High authority says that this works well. I gather that administrative responsibilities are the first to be surrendered to younger men. The fact that the plan gives a period for a professor "to adjust psychologically to new interests" is mentioned. It allows a period for adjustment within a department. It retains ripe scholars for some teaching. And it distributes salaries proportionately to the services rendered by older men "who almost invariably taper out of their duties regardless of retirement regulations." On the other side, testimony comes from Iowa. In that state the laws have made it difficult for tax-supported institutions to retire teachers on pension. Arrangements for reduced work and reduced salary have consequently been made. A professor in the State Teachers College says that "the situation is not easy. Some teachers are no longer permitted to give their

own examinations . . . the 'tapering off' process is not considered desirable by many teachers." Efforts are being made to inaugurate a typical contributory annuity system. An administrative officer writing from the University of Iowa says, "Our experience for the last eighteen years has led us to believe that there is nothing good to be said about the 'tapering off' process. It has created quite a social and financial problem."

I have dwelt on "tapering off" for the single reason that this procedure is often recommended but is seldom carefully scrutinized. It appears at first sight to offer a compromise which might meet many of the objections that are raised against other methods of closing out active service. But it sacrifices all the advantages that flow from completing retirement at an earlier age, and I suspect that it would tend to hurt feelings and to engender resentful talk about discrimination quite as often as do the elastic retirement procedures.

D. Next I want to speak quite urgently of something about which medical testimony seems to leave little doubt but which, so far as I am aware, has been ignored in the discussions of retirement rules and of their administration.

An eminent physician who has numbered many university teachers among his patients said to me, "Some people blossom afresh and find zest in a new life after they retire; others shrivel up unhappily and disintegrate." What makes the difference? There can be no single answer. But I am sure that it makes a great deal of difference whether a man has planned or entered upon his retirement before he has lost his elasticity and initiative or not until after his power of arranging and adapting himself to a new way of life has begun to be impaired. Professor D. B. Young of George Washington University remarks, "Even with sufficient income, no matter how provided, retirement can come too late to allow of mental and physical adjustments . . . retirement should come early enough to allow of the making of proper adjustments." I am confident that medical opinion would abundantly support these views. Yet I am under the unhappy impression that at least one quarter to one third of the university professors begin to lose their ability to make decisions, to take up new interests and to form new habits before they betray what is happening to them by fumbling over the performance of familiar

duties. A person who neither retires nor makes intelligent plans for living in retirement before he loses his elasticity is doomed to more or less malaise and unhappiness when he does retire. Although one might expect every college professor to plan for his retirement, it is evident that a great many men do not do so, just as a great many people never make a will until their doctors warn them that they may not live much longer. We officers of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association can name many college professors who have retired in bewilderment, who cannot decide what to do. These are the *emeriti* who subside into boredom or despondency. Our observation is confirmed by the Old Age Counselling Center which Dr. Lillian J. Martin and Mrs. Clare de Gruchy have conducted in San Francisco since 1929. Their clinic has been consulted by persons from all walks of life and among them have been school teachers and college teachers. The clinic has made systematic use of questionnaires to dissect case histories. An analysis of the histories of their teachers shows that less than four per cent of them planned for life in retirement before they retired. These figures seem incredible until one reflects that the Old Age Counselling Center is consulted chiefly by persons who are failing to make a happy adjustment by themselves. Even so, the figures offer impressive evidence that too many teachers let themselves be tempted to postpone until too late the task of envisaging prophetically the special problems of life in retirement.

For these reasons I urge that, whatever the retirement system may be, everybody should receive at least two or three years' notice of a definite date at which he shall retire. The teacher would then be on notice in time to prepare his plans and to make all desirable arrangements. One merit of an arbitrary rule establishing an inflexible limit to active service is that it compels everybody to recognize the inexorable approach of the day. I believe that there are a few college or university executives who try to give warning under their flexible retirement systems. More ought to be encouraged to do so, and to recognize that ample warning not only tends to lighten the odious task of informing honored members of the faculty that the final hour has come, but is truly considerate of the ulterior welfare and well-being of the individuals affected.

The reader will have noticed that I have been trying to understand the sensitiveness, apprehensions and preferences which teachers in colleges express or seem to betray. Their feelings and preferences are certainly important and should be understood and considered. But they present contradictions, and after examining them one feels puzzled and confused. These are, however, not the only elements in the situation. If I were forced to decide what to do, I would pause over each institution and try to see how the scales would tip if other elements were thrown in. These would be related to the efficiency of the institution, to policies which might differ from one college or university to another, and to administrative practicalities. This bundle of notes is being offered to college administrators. They know their special problems better than I can know them and I shall not be so audacious as to recommend any formula. But it may be proper for me to set down a few terminal reflections.

There are bound to be disappointments, hurt feelings and resentments when some older professors are retired. But it is no less certain that there will be discontent and resentment among students and young instructors if the older professors remain in active service until each of them says, "Now I am ready to stop."

The size of the institution may well determine the policy. In a small college whose faculty is rather like a family, the administration would hardly appear to be acting reasonably if it retired everybody regardless of circumstances at the same particular age. A small college may have only one or two men on its faculty who enjoy a wide reputation. It could hardly afford to retire such men while they are strong and active and at the height of their popularity, no matter how many years old they may be. But in a large university administrative difficulties and dangers become serious if one tries to make a multitude of personal discriminations. The fact that large numbers of people must be dealt with is doubtless one of the reasons why retirements in the Army and Navy and the public services are regulated by rules that are inflexible.

If the college authorities want to be free to retire different men at different ages, their rule had better be mandatory with a condition subsequent, e.g., "Everybody must retire at 65, except those who are invited to remain in service until a later age." This puts everybody on notice that he must prepare for retirement before

the minimum age is reached. This kind of rule gives the administration as much discretionary power as it would wield under the form of rule that says "Everybody who has reached 65 may be retired at any time." It gives unmistakable warning to all. It tends to give discriminatory decisions a complimentary instead of a disparaging implication.

If a teacher is surprised to learn that he must retire at the end of the year, the effect on his morale may be serious, and if a number are surprised the effect on the morale of the faculty will be unhappy. It seems to be only too natural to harbor confident and naive hopes that retirement will be deferred.

A college which relies on a rule that allows the exercise of discretion should try to give every individual two or three years advance notice of his retirement date.

Almost any rule which is applied with skill and tact will yield better results than will an ideal system that is administered clumsily.

Where the institution maintains a medical advisory service for students, it might, if the medical adviser is well qualified, offer a consultative service on the problems of aging. This department of medicine—geriatrics—is coming to be regarded as no less important than the department which concerns itself with the health of children, pediatrics.

Much more can certainly be done than has yet been attempted to find appropriate and worth while tasks for the *emeriti*:—one or more agencies ought to concern themselves with these possibilities. Any such agency had better not be closely identified with a particular institution. The special tasks which any particular college can offer its own *emeriti* are likely to be very much less numerous than those which might be turned up elsewhere. Tasks to be performed away from the campus and appointments originating from outside sources are to be preferred for many reasons. An agency acting "from outside" might do some of the good that is desired by those who advocate "tapering off"; and it could hardly occasion any embarrassment or do any harm.

Suggestions looking to the organization of an agency or bureau or exchange to make use of the abilities of men who have retired from the teaching routine have lately been put forward in different quarters. It is very much to be hoped that these suggestions will bear fruit.

CREATIVE ARTS AND HIGHER EDUCATION

HELEN PEAVY WASHBURN

ITHACA, NEW YORK

PART I •

THE CASE FOR CREATIVE ARTS

THE liberal arts college is dedicated to the proposition that successful living is dependent upon understanding of the world and its inhabitants from as many significant points of view as possible. It usually trains its students for no particular profession (unless it be the teaching of liberal arts) on the theory that the culture which it imparts will enable its graduates to cope with all living more intelligently and hence to make a greater success of whatever profession they eventually enter. The university with its variety of technical and professional colleges in addition to its college of liberal arts generally approximates the purpose stated by Ezra Cornell: "I would found an institution where any person can find instruction in any study."

Many scholastic battles have been fought during the last half century over the admission of creative arts to the curricula of colleges and universities. I refer specifically to practice in drawing, painting, sculpture, musical performance and composition, the dance, the drama and creative writing, those arts in process of being created as distinguished from arts of the past which have already been created. Architecture is of course one of the principal creative arts, but since it is also a practical science with a utilitarian value, its position in our universities is often more stable and assured than that of the others. Any college approach to these arts, cultural or professional, is based on the belief that they are of sufficient value to humanity to merit it.

In an age when everything tends to be measured by the dollar, it is difficult to prove the value of creative arts in higher education or elsewhere to the satisfaction of the commercially minded. Perhaps the best proof is to be found in the statement of Raymond B. Fosdick, President of the Rockefeller Foundation (Annual Reports, 1936):

* NOTE: This is the first of four articles to appear in successive issues of the *Bulletin*.

"In the long run, a civilization or a community is judged not by its factories but by its libraries and museums; not by the physical and material basis of its life but by its architecture, its schools, its music, its drama and its general esthetic resources. We are not so much interested in conveniences which Athenians possessed in 400 B.C. What has held men spellbound for generations is the public attitude which made possible the matchless lines of the Parthenon."

In general, educators have agreed with this view to the extent of considering the arts cultural when enough time has elapsed since their creation and of depending heavily upon them in courses such as literature, musicology, art history and appreciation and for graduate theses in which the works of Shakespeare, Michelangelo, Beethoven and their lesser brethren are analyzed and probed for hidden meanings. But no one has yet determined with accuracy at just what moment that change in art from inconsequence to culture occurs.

Those interested in the teaching of creative arts believe that the creative process has not changed since the beginning of time and of art; that an understanding of that process is essential to the fullest appreciation of art and of life; that such understanding is most fully realized through practice; and that the exercise of creative abilities in producing art affords people one of the greatest and most enduring satisfactions of existence.

Living artists have no quarrel with the arts of the past. Indeed, they often have a deeper comprehension of them than many scholars in those fields. But they believe that an intellectual and scholarly approach alone all too often results in the ability to talk glibly about art without the slightest understanding of its significance. They believe that art is significant because it is a reaction to and interpretation of life and its problems in which emotion, intellect, and spirit all have a part. It is, in short, the quintessence of life. They believe further that the problems of the Greeks are not necessarily ours; that as life goes on, so, too, must art go on to give it meaning and direction. They feel that the ordinary business man's idea that he can take his art or leave it alone (with the result that he leaves it alone) reveals a complete ignorance of this basic fact that art is a necessary part of living. That ignorance has often been fostered by teaching art

as a thing of the past with no relation to him or his time rather than as a force which accommodates the needs of the spirit to the facts of existence.

One of the most conclusive proofs of the value of creative arts in all our civilization may be found in the dilemmas which our modern culture has encountered by ignoring them. Everywhere there is evidence that our mechanized civilization has not yielded us the happiness that the enthusiasts of the 19th Century expected. To many, it has brought extreme poverty; to many others, a so-called higher standard of living measured by material comforts but with no comparable flowering of the spirit. To a relatively few in science, business and industry, it has brought opportunity for creative activity which in other ages might have gone into one of the arts.

This activity, however, satisfying in itself, is likely to have been directed toward the accumulation of wealth and even the people engaged in it seem not to have found always in such accumulation the satisfaction they anticipated. Those who are trying to crowd even the liberal arts college out of our universities or to emasculate it in favor of technical and professional schools should watch such people during their hours off duty in their often pitiful attempts to find pleasure. The watchers might then reflect that the standard American joke of the tired business man, his golf and his chorus girls, is perhaps more accurately the standard American tragedy. The theory that technical training for earning a living is all-sufficient ignores the fact that scarcely anyone works at his profession, however absorbing it may be, for twenty-four hours a day.

From millions of others, our industrial age has taken away even that opportunity for creative effort which the age of handicraft afforded. Day after day, during the endless years of their lives, they spend their working hours repeating over and over the same monotonous motion. Since their environment and training have deprived them of all comprehension of creative activity, thousands spend their hours of freedom not in compensating for this void in their working hours, but in passively receiving commercial entertainment that panders to the lowest tastes of the masses and has but one aim—to get as much of the masses' money as possible.

Already, advertisers are shouting at us all the material gadgets that may be ours after the war. At war's end, the need of the world's people for material things will indeed be pitiful and it must be supplied. But beyond that, if they are not given something more than material comforts to hope for, something to believe in, some purpose in living which provides for creative and constructive development of the capacities of each individual, this war may well be a prelude to the complete destruction of humanity.

The creative arts already mentioned are not the one and only way of supplying these things, but they can be powerful forces in that direction. Though there is not room to discuss it here, a rational religion that an intelligent person living today can accept is perhaps the greatest creative art. Everyone is searching, consciously or unconsciously, for some sense and meaning to existence. The arts are the expressions of that search in which meanings found are blended into forms which give them significance and preserve them through the generations. All the knowledge of fact in the world and all the material possessions in the world cannot supply understanding of the heights and depths of human experience where the arts have their dwelling place.

Because every art is an interpretation of some aspect of man's life and environment, nothing which concerns the world today or the world of the past as it affects the present can be considered alien to it. A college or university would therefore seem to be the most fertile soil possible for the integration of creative arts with a knowledge of man's history, accomplishments and problems. Arts taught at college level would of course affect directly only a fraction of the population but since that fraction is supposed to lead the rest, it must itself understand art and its possibilities if it wishes to lead others toward a more satisfying existence.

Actually, while scholastic battles raged around this issue, the creative arts steadily gained ground in our institutions of higher learning.¹ Had it not been for the entrance of America into the

¹ Such surveys of the subject as "The American Renaissance" by R. L. Duffus (1928), "Advance from Broadway" by Norris Houghton (1941), "College Instruction in Art" by Palmer and Holton (published by the Association of American Colleges in 1934) and "The Teaching of Art in the Colleges of the United States" by Robert J. Goldwater (published by the

Second World War, anyone arguing against their inclusion in college curricula would have argued against the facts. But with colleges throughout the country changing overnight to a war program, the arts not only suffered the setbacks inevitable at such times but often went into total eclipse. Science and technology were likely to be undisputed rulers of the campus. Someone has said that the tragedy of this was not that colleges changed into technical schools for the war emergency, but that they were so pleased to do so, with no sense of loss.

Since we do not yet know which direction postwar education will swing, this may be the best possible time to examine the entire problem of the relation of creative arts to higher education. These opinions have evolved through intimate contact with one university for twenty-three years, a more general knowledge of several others, and through conversation and correspondence with many people interested in the teaching of these various arts in colleges throughout the United States. These people's frankness in discussing the subject has made it possible, I believe, to come close to the heart of the matter. It has also compelled me to keep anonymous many of those who have helped me so immeasurably.

A vital creative arts program in our colleges and universities could accomplish and in some cases is accomplishing three things: subsidy for artists of unusual talent to enable them to go on producing; a conception of the riches and potentialities of art for all students; and basic training for the few who may become professional artists or teachers of art.

The first point mentioned is not necessarily the most important, but it is a fountainhead for the other two. The young creative artist (and often the older one as well) finds himself at the forks of a dilemma. He can cater to the public taste and the demand of the moment and if he is successful, he may make a good in-

College Art Association as a supplement to its journal of May 1943) show a growing consciousness throughout the country of the importance of creative arts in the college curriculum. In Goldwater's study of art in 50 colleges, he found in 1940, 202 teachers giving studio courses in the practice of art as compared to 172 giving courses in art history. Teachers of the various other arts report similar situations. In music especially, colleges and universities have lately expanded their programs to include not only many types of musical performance, but composition as well. Several European composers and a growing number of American composers are now teaching in college departments of music.

come; or he may interpret life as he sees and feels it regardless of sales possibilities. In the latter case he may happen to hit a popular trend and cash in, but the chances are all against him, at least in those early critical years. Unless he has an independent income, he must find some other means of making a living that will allow him enough free time to go on producing art.

This is not to imply that all art meeting popular favor is bad. Many of our classics have of course rested on a broad popular appeal through the ages. But neither does it follow that all popular art is good, as today's run-of-the-mill movies, slick magazine stories and soap operas can abundantly testify. Whether it is bad or good, we do not look to popular art of the moment for breaking new ground, or pointing toward new directions. Anyone who examines advertising art or magazine illustration will find devices used there which were originated by the "fine artists" thirty to fifty years ago.

If we believe that exploration of new territory and creation of new works is important in the arts as in every other branch of human culture, we as a society must consider it our duty to make such exploration and creation possible. Leaving artists to sink or swim as best they can in the comfortable belief that genius will make its own way in spite of every obstacle is a complete evasion of our responsibilities. It merits the type of art that we are everywhere permitting and encouraging through default. As Walt Whitman said, "To have great poets there must be great audiences too." Every great period of art in the world's history has been one in which artists were appreciated, encouraged and supported by the public.

It is not the artist who is to blame if he turns to pot boiling in order to live or if that pot boiling makes him unfit finally to produce anything better. An illustrator of children's books told us that early in his career he had made more money doing advertising art than he would probably ever make again. But he discovered that he could no longer paint a person or an automobile without making them look exactly like those in the ads he had done for a motor company. He got out while there was yet time and eventually found a field where he could work with integrity. Many others are not so fortunate.

Government patronage is another solution which has provided

most valuable stimulus to contemporary American art. Much as we hope for its continuance, we know that the vagaries of politics and the distrust of art by politicians will make its career erratic at best. Here too, as in the commercial world, the artist must often conform to the ideas and wishes of those in power. Patronage by the wealthy has never been too helpful to living American artists and there are many indications that even such patronage as they have known is on the decline. Sometimes the artist finds a bread and butter job entirely different from his art to be the best solution, but he is likely either to slight the job because his heart is elsewhere or to have no time or energy left to devote to art.

Colleges and universities, however, are supposedly free from politics, they do not need to sell their wares to the masses, they are dedicated to the enlargement of man's knowledge, understanding and accomplishments, and they will continue to be supported publicly or privately as long as Americans retain their faith in education. If they glorify the arts of the past, why should they not consider it a duty to facilitate the advancement of the arts by subsidizing talented artists?

This is by no means a new or revolutionary idea. For years, they have given such subsidy to science as a matter of course. Through every conceivable means from student fellowships and research grants to endowed professorships, they have encouraged scientists and potential scientists to live in their midst, to continue their experiments and to make new discoveries. As a result, science in our colleges today is continually looking forward, moving on to new frontiers. It uses the knowledge of the past, to be sure, but it makes such knowledge a guide-post to the future. Teaching of the arts, in marked contrast, is likely to be a nostalgic looking backward to happier days with no attempt to make this integrate with the present or to point toward a better future.

The reason is obvious. There is money in science and scientific invention and there is no money in art unless one happens to possess some rare examples from the past. Commercial concerns are glad to underwrite college experiments even in the purest of the pure sciences, for they never know when something may be discovered as a result that will net them undreamed-of profits.

Science and the modern industrial world which it has made

deserve our profound respect and admiration, but great scientists are among the first to admit that the mechanized world and the material satisfactions it brings can supply only a part of man's needs. Everyone realizes the absurdity of attempting to go back to the age of handicraft. If we are ever to attain a rational and workable balance, we must use these products of science to make life less arduous and precarious; then we must turn our remaining time and energy to that part of life that is not lived by bread or gadgets alone.

It may be objected that great or even gifted artists are not necessarily good teachers, so what would a college do with them? There will be more concerning this later. For the present, it should suffice to suggest that there is probably about the same proportion of good teachers among artists that there is among scientists. Every research scientist is not asked to teach, and fortunately so. The institution which shelters him feels that the research which it enables him to do is quite as valuable as any teaching might be.

Perhaps the most important service the college or university can render through a creative arts program is in giving all its students a means of enriching hours free from earning daily bread and of beautifying the fabric of daily living. As Hughes Mearns has proven in experiments with children, youths and adults over a long period of years, creative ability is far more widespread than has been commonly supposed. Many superior teachers of art instructing students who are not preparing for a professional art career report likewise that they get from such students a gratifyingly high average of work and of enthusiasm. One college placement officer states that the students' demand for creative arts courses far exceeds the world's demand for creative artists. This is an encouraging sign from the students if not from the world, provided that they realize the situation and elect such courses for the many satisfactions other than material ones which the arts can supply. One young painter who has already won high honors in his profession stated that he was sick and tired of watching art schools turn out hundreds of students each year with inadequate general training and equipped only to enter a profession that offers virtually no hope of making a living. He had decided to become a teacher of art in colleges because these

are the only institutions above high school level where there is real need for art teaching. He considered this need to be cultural rather than professional and to extend to every student in every college.

During the depression of the '30s when an unwelcome and unpaid leisure was forced onto millions of the world's population, a good share of them had no conception of how to use it constructively. Lacking money to spend on commercial entertainment, they were likely to drag out their days in idle futility. We hope that the leisure of unemployment will not become widespread again, but it seems evident that if the remunerative work is to go around in this machine civilization after the postwar needs have been met, most of the population must share the work more equally than has been done before and will consequently have more leisure hours than has ever before been possible.

There are many signs that the people at large are groping for a means of filling such hours which will give a lasting satisfaction through use of their particular abilities. The various W.P.A. art and music classes and similar adult education projects of the depression days found a gratifying participation. In the '30s the workers' theaters and the later government-sponsored Federal Theater Project were among the most vital developments in drama. During the present war, one who traveled widely among soldiers' camps reported hearing over and over again from the boys in service words like these: "Sure, we appreciate all the dances and the juke boxes and movies and such. But if we only had a chance to make things with our hands, paint pictures, act, play some sort of music ourselves after all the day's drill, what a relief we'd get!" Some few camps have offered such recreational programs and have met enthusiastic response.

In one way or another, this consciousness of art and feeling of the need for it by all the people is pushing to the surface in many places. This is not a need for idle amusement, but for the food of life itself as opposed to mechanical, animal existence. The art being produced by soldiers in the present war, exhibited in various museums, and reproduced in such magazines as *Life* is much greater in quantity and better on the average than the last war produced. Where soldiers' bands and orchestras are possible, both enthusiasm and music of high quality often result. At the

close of this conflict the world, nauseated and weak from blood-letting and destruction, will cry out more than ever before for constructive, creative outlets for the peoples' emotions and talents.

The campus reflects precisely the same situation. Many of the arts now offered in college curricula have been pushed in bodily by the students themselves through enthusiastic participation in extra-curricular art activity which finally persuaded administrators to make it respectable by allowing college credit. In other places, arts still exist on the fringes in extra-curricular form or are pursued independently by students. As one instance from many, a student at Antioch College, entirely on his own initiative, began a color film describing his Alma Mater. Its excellence persuaded the college to back it financially until it finally emerged as a 20-minute color film with sound ("Campus Frontiers"), was picked as one of the ten best non-commercial films of the year and distributed overseas by the O.W.I. and in Latin America by Nelson Rockefeller's commission.

It was President Wilson, I believe, who remarked, while still at Princeton, concerning extra-curricular college activities, that the side shows had swallowed the main tent.² Before judging the truth of such a statement, it might be well to reappraise what are side shows and what the main tent. As Hallie Flanagan remarks in *Dynamo*, an account of the experimental theater at Vassar, youth's burning energy is not only intellectual but biological, spiritual and emotional. None of these qualities can be ignored in programs concerned with the development of complete human beings. All of them are recognized and developed through the arts. Progressive educators have realized this and have made provision for such activity both in and out of the curriculum. They have proven that training in the doing of various arts which in time will become humanities offers a necessary complement to the learning of what others in past ages have done exactly as driving an automobile enhances a written description of the motor car and its functions.

We come now to that rare student especially gifted in one of the arts who may become a professional artist or art teacher. I

² He was probably thinking mainly of athletics since he had himself participated in a number of literary side shows, but many others would not make that distinction.

shall not discuss specifically the training of art teachers for I believe that such teachers must first be artists, at least potentially, with training added as necessary in the technique and problems of teaching. It is easy enough to evade this issue by saying as many educators do that there is no place for the artist in college and that he should go to an art school where he will get competent professional training. It is easy on the other hand to suggest that he take the regulation liberal arts course devoid of practice in art to give him a broad foundation for later professional study. Unfortunately, neither of these suggestions solves the problem.

Technical art schools are likely to be extremely narrow.³ A student often receives training in the superficial technique of using his materials with scarcely a glimpse of the problems involved in selecting materials which require knowledge and understanding of the many aspects of human life and accomplishment. This is perhaps one reason why much contemporary art has been so ineffective in stirring public response. It has toyed with techniques and tricky mannerisms without ever coming to grips with life itself.

If the artist of tomorrow is to be a leader in society and if his art is to be a force in shaping a better world than he has known, he must abandon his ivory tower, his attitude of being holier than thou, and give a significant interpretation of the world based on knowledge and insight. This is as different from selling his art to the highest commercial bidder as it is from turning out the sterility of form without content.

At this point, I hear many listeners remark that if he wants to achieve such a goal, he must certainly keep clear of the colleges. The liberal arts ideal is not impossible of fulfillment, however. Indeed, it has been fulfilled times without number. It is simply that narrow administrators and bad teachers have often bungled it in process.

Professional art schools in universities would naturally attract more potential artists than would liberal arts colleges. A liberal arts college, however, could provide exactly the broad cultural background that every artist needs. If it wished, it could furnish

³ Arthur Pope in *Art, Artist, and Layman* (Harvard University Press) gives an excellent discussion at much greater length than is possible here concerning the weaknesses of many art schools.

also adequately taught practice courses in the various arts for the general student which would at the same time train the abilities of the gifted student and form a basis for later more detailed professional development. It could give this potential artist some arrangement for special work flexible enough to meet his needs. This would not necessarily lead to a degree. Most artists are not much concerned with degrees except as society demands them in doling out jobs. Professional art schools in a university while providing the thorough practice essential to every artist could have the added advantages of many liberal arts courses.

Actually, what is the record of colleges and universities in developing creative artists in America? From information in various Who's Whos, here are a few statistics: Of 92 prominent painters and sculptors, 10 mention no education, 3 were self-taught, 54 attended art schools, 20 studied with private art teachers, 5 attended college and 3 of these were college graduates. If I had included several younger painters and sculptors who are likely to become prominent before many years, there would have been a much higher proportion of college graduates among them.

Of 74 prominent musical performers, 46 had attended conservatories of music, 22 had studied with private teachers, 12 had attended college and of these, 3 were college graduates and 2 had advanced degrees. Several of these were on two or more lists. A large proportion of these artists, although performing in America had studied in Europe.

Of 16 prominent American composers of serious music, 6 had studied at conservatories of music, 1 with private teachers, 12 had attended college and of these, 9 were graduates and 1 had an advanced degree. Of 5 European composers living in this country, 4 studied at conservatories and 1 taught himself music and has a university Ph.D.

Of 39 actors of the stage, 4 went to dramatic schools, 14 mention no higher education, 16 attended college and of these, 3 were graduates and 1 held an advanced degree. I might mention for what it is worth that 6 of our leading ladies, Ethel Barrymore, Helen Hayes, Gertrude Lawrence, Tallulah Bankhead, Ina Claire and Grace George were educated in convent schools. Of 25 leading movie actors, 2 had attended dramatic school, 18 listed no higher education, 5 had attended college and of these, I mentioned a degree.

Of 14 leading playwrights, 6 mentioned no higher education, 8 had attended college and of these, 6 were graduated and 3 held advanced degrees. Three of those who did not attend college and 1 of those who did attend mention newspaper work.

Dancers seem not to be listed in *Who's Whos* often enough to get a fair picture. Of 7 prominent dancers who were so listed, 1 had attended a conservatory, 5 mention no higher education and 1 (Ted Shawn) is a college graduate.

Of 86 leading American writers, 17 mentioned no higher education, 69 had attended college and of these, 49 were graduates and 10 held advanced degrees. Three of those who had not attended college and 4 of those who had attended mention newspaper work.

These figures can be only roughly accurate, for many people do not list all their training and some who merely mention attending college may actually have been graduated. It was not feasible to take the same number from each art because each does not boast an equal number of prominent artists. It would seem to be accurate enough, however, to indicate that composers of music, playwrights and other writers whose work must fuse intellectual and emotional qualities to an unusual degree hold the monopoly among artists in college education.

Many artists have educated themselves to an extent that most college graduates might envy, but many others, unfortunately, have never taken that trouble. Musical authorities have often remarked that individual players in band or orchestra are likely to know only their own small part, to be unable to hear or appreciate the total effect and to know and understand surprisingly little of music as a whole. The same often applies to actors of the screen and to lesser actors of the theater who depend largely upon a director. It is not surprising, therefore, that the average of college attendance among such artists is not high. This should not apply, however, to painters, sculptors, leading actors of the stage or solo dancers. They could make good use in their work of culture in its broadest meaning. Perhaps if more of them can be persuaded to try it, their arts may improve accordingly.

There is much difference of opinion among those who did attend college as to whether they became artists in spite of their college training or partly because of it. Ben Hecht stated that he did not go to college because it represents "classicism, puritan-

ism and a didactic dogmatism." Robinson Jeffers and Robert Frost both attended college for a short time but were bored and left. Such opinions, however, seem to be in a minority among writers. Many mention with affection various college teachers to whom they owe much. Many who did not attend college or who left before graduation give illness or no funds as the reason. Betty Smith who burst into prominence with "A Tree Grows in Brooklyn" and who had formerly won prizes and fellowships for creative writing at the University of Michigan and at Yale gives an opinion typical of many: "My college courses helped because they kept me on a schedule of reading and writing. However, talent cannot be acquired merely by taking creative arts courses."

Although the average of college attendance among writers is high, it might be worth mentioning that of 3 authors who have had a tremendous influence on modern writers and writing and on the public taste in swinging that taste away from the conventional literary, Hemingway and Saroyan did not attend college and Steinbeck mentions attending Stanford University for one year only.

Except for writers and composers, the plan of improving artists with college training seems an ideal for the future rather than present accomplishment. Whether it materializes or not will depend on what importance artists can rightly attach to a college education and how important colleges consider living art to be. Colleges and universities have all the facilities for improving the quality of contemporary art through wider knowledge and deeper understanding until it may even surpass the art of the past which they so carefully cherish. They can if they wish free art for all students from the bounds of the textbooks and the archaeological museums and bring it to life even as Pygmalion's statue of the maiden once lived. This will of course generate many of the problems that Pygmalion also encountered, but living people still prefer vitality plus problems to the most skilful embalming for burial.

CHANGING EMPHASES IN HIGHER EDUCATION: SOME IMPLICATIONS

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AS the nation approaches the close of what is hoped will be the final year of war, one is tremendously impressed with the great transitions that have been made on all fronts but particularly the home-front. For it is here that the effects of any and all changes impress and affect us most. Industry has expanded production to proportions unheard of; we find ourselves living under a system of rationing; women have gone into positions formerly inaccessible to them; while the armed forces have likewise drawn extensively on both the male and female populations. The dislocations in normal living have indeed been great and our attention has been diverted first to one achievement, then to another. But in the midst of all this, it is unfortunate that we have given so little attention to our educational policies, principles and practices, looking ahead with the long-range view towards the job our institutions of learning are to perform, following the victory, to help bring our nation back on an even keel.

The immediate needs of the emergency situation, following the onset of the war, upset the school curriculum immeasurably. The demands of a nation at war turned topsy-turvy plans which had been blueprinted for a world at peace. School enrolment fell off greatly—especially after the military conscription age was lowered to include eighteen-year olds. The loss in teaching personnel was proportionate—some went into the army, since teaching was not placed in an essential category, while others gave up their jobs to enter industry or other branches of war work. So serious did the teacher-shortage problem become that hundreds of schools, public and private and on all levels, had to close. And while others remained open, in some cases they did so only by issuing emergency certificates to poorly qualified candidates, while on the upper levels the colleges and universities had either to do without instructors, increase the teaching load, or employ teachers whose qualifications were substandard.

All of this, naturally, has been very deleterious to our educational structure. For it is the schools that are the major producers of our future citizens—here their outlook on life is conceived, developed and shaped. Realizing this, and accepting it as an inevitable consequence of a country at war, let us look at the school curriculum, particularly on the college and university level, to see how it has been modified and the probable effects of such modification.

In time of war these institutions take on added significance. The main currents of our national life flow through the schools. Our institutions of learning become agencies to carry forward the national purpose. The chief effect of this has been to unbalance the curriculum, to the extent that some of our schools have become modified military institutions. Several hundreds have given over the major portion of their facilities to war-training programs. Hundreds of thousands of students have been trained in technical subjects. But the importance of all this is realized when we ponder over the fact that these activities have been restricted to engineering, chemistry, physics, production supervision and management.

This excessive stress on the natural sciences and technology, fundamentally altering the college curriculum, has concurrently wrought a change in educational objectives. Many instructors have been retrained that they might be able to meet the needs called for by the armed services program. Liberal education is no more—at least for the duration. The humanities are overshadowed completely and in some places are in disrepute. Language study receives attention only insofar as it contributes to the war effort. Education *per se* has been checked considerably. But perhaps the greatest harm is being done, when one takes the long-range viewpoint, in the field of social sciences, the academic area that produces our "societal doctors."

The dislocations in national existence, brought about by our shifting from a non-war to a war economy, create many grave social problems. War produces large-scale population movements, which in turn destroy the patterns of community life. There come into being new groups of individuals for whom community facilities of the ordinary sort cannot be supplied. War industries, demanding large labor forces, depopulate some areas

and make for heavy concentration in others. Housing shortages produce abnormal conditions of life for great numbers. Juvenile delinquency increases. Transportation problems develop. The health of the nation deteriorates because of insufficient medical facilities. The community loses its leaders, teachers, doctors, lawyers, social workers. This complete disorganization of community life consequently brings about personal disorganization which in turn leads to disruption of the family. All of these problems and others face us now, growing in magnitude and being forcibly impressed upon our consciousness as we come closer to victory and again begin to think in terms of a world at peace.

Certainly we should not become so overawed and blinded by war hysteria as to lose sight of the fact that war periods are always short compared to periods of peace. Hard upon the termination of this global conflict the full effect of the problems it has created will be felt in full force. And where is going to be found the trained personnel to combat the results of this breakdown of national life, to help reshape and rebuild the country once again into a strong nation?

It should be understood that the large number of individuals that have been trained in chemistry, physics, technological subjects and management cannot all be absorbed by industry in a postwar period, when the nation again returns to its normal existence. It ought to be realized that at present we are supplying the world with products of industry, but when hostilities cease, plants and factories are going to shut down. And there is nothing to indicate that when industry reconverts to the production of civilian commodities that it will need anything nearly like the present number of employees. The returning soldier will need guidance and help; rehabilitation programs, human and otherwise, will have to be put into effect. In this latter respect, already we find ourselves shorthanded and lacking in trained individuals to carry on the work necessitated by the regular release from the army of veterans who are returning from the active war fronts. In fact, readjustments will have to be made in practically every niche of our daily life.

It should be apparent that the de-emphasis of the social sciences is going to have far-reaching consequences, unless it is checked

now. For the trained social scientists are the ones best fitted to remedy the current social ills, as well as to cope with the inevitable difficult conditions which are sure to follow the end of the war. They are the ones in whom we must place our hope and faith to provide an effective program of regeneration, to plan and lead us back to normalcy.

The intent of this exposition is not to decry nor to infer that the non-social science areas should be curtailed or receive less emphasis. For an effective balance between the social sciences and other fields of knowledge is needed to achieve the best and most permanent results. All areas of learning are valuable and useful and will be needed more than ever in the period of reconstruction that is to come. But the major purpose here is to focus attention on a situation which is of the utmost importance, if we are sincere in our desire to bring about proper readjustment of society. If we are to get and maintain the correct perspective while rebuilding our war-distorted social structure, we will need personnel well trained in social planning and possessing a solid foundation in the basic and core subjects that deal with men and how they live.

The depression of the thirties revealed quite definitely how necessary are individuals capable of dealing with complex problems affecting our national life. Now it should be less difficult to see how much more we need and are going to need persons able to cope with and find solutions to conditions which are going to be much more complex, more puzzling, and of greater magnitude than ever before in our history.

It is the trained social scientist, disciplined to be objective in his approach, who can successfully meet this challenge in the postwar era. Thus our educational institutions should begin at once to act and to revitalize their social science programs. They should take inventory of their present offerings, place emphasis upon and do whatever else is necessary to develop those phases of the social studies which are essential to the development of prepared and skilled personnel who will be needed to help realign our society and set it once again to functioning in its normal channels.

CAMPUS IDOL or FAITH BETRAYED

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THE cost of stabling the sacred cow of Freshman English in American colleges and universities has reached a tolerable—or intolerable—sum over the past fifty years. Without trying at this time to fix the blame, one must admit that college entrants are as a rule still unable to use their language well enough for the occasions of higher education. To recognize this, however, by no means proves that the elegant array of rhetoric texts, books of choice selections, theme assignments, at times cunningly embellished with “literature” or “social awareness,” has begun to accomplish the main purpose. It seems, rather, that we circle heedlessly round an assumption that what needs to be done and ought to be done, does in fact get itself done.

In the prewar college, Freshman Composition—why quibble about its exact title—was practically universal. Likewise, during the war, young men selected for specialized military training in college units required language skills beyond the poor residue of high school English classes. And here, the various colleges, left to work out their own program of instruction, largely followed the traditional pattern. Shall we expect the same routines and attitudes to prevail in the “reconstruction period” of higher education? If this is the best we can do with the problem of illiteracy within college walls, then, by all means, let it be done.

The most disturbing fact, perhaps, about Freshman English courses is their amazing diversity of method and purpose. In spite of the fact that “credit” for this year of work is readily negotiable in transfer, the nature of the course and the extent of achievement are less demonstrated and less demonstrable than in other departments of study. To anyone not “to the notion born” this diversity might easily be suspect. Does it not confess to some misgivings? If the course were doing a well-defined job, should it not proceed with sharper definition towards its purpose instead of seeming always on the edge of tentative experimentation?

Two circumstances, I think, have reared this idol of the Ameri-

can campus. English departments have grown fat on the tuition levied in the interest of this required course. And even if they were honestly convinced that the money was well used and that they were endowed with a rare opportunity for service, they were at the same time apparently willing to grant that they were, so to speak, a priesthood deeply versed in the holy enchantment of language and alone able to induct the academic neophyte. In this they were strangely enough abetted by their colleagues in other departments. But this compliance in professors of science or philosophy was, I fear, not wholly without guile. It was, however, expedient. Training college students to some skill in their language—often going back to the elements—is, by general agreement, a thankless and often a vain task. One can imagine teachers who are keen about psychology or sociology, or about literature, very cheerfully by-passing this annoying distraction of language in order to get ahead with the “really important” phases of college education.

And so it comes about that faculties often reach a rare level of agreement in their lip service to a course which has not known what it should teach or how best to achieve the vague and indeterminate purposes commonly assigned to it.

By way of trying to throw some light, however indirect, on this golden calf, I propose to make some forthright statements, which in detail may perhaps be disputed, but which on the whole I am willing to defend.

1. Education in language skills is so badly neglected in the elementary and secondary schools that the colleges must instruct almost all entering students in the management of thought in words.

2. Basically there is only one persistent reason for the existence of this course, whatever form it takes—to teach students to write (less often to speak) decent English.

3. Courses in Freshman Composition, for all their gadgets and methods, their books of selections and new approaches to life, their emphasis on vocabulary or their addiction to drill, not to mention their omnibus integration, do not greatly improve the student's language skills, and almost certainly accomplish nothing worth college credit. They constitute six hours of credit towards a degree. Whatever shortcomings the students there-

after reveal are almost wholly overlooked—if they are not condoned—by their instructors. In a few colleges a systematic effort is made beyond the first year to promote literacy, or at least to discourage backsliding into downright illiteracy. But the general view seems to hold that the premium has been paid and hence the insurance remains valid.

4. A disturbing proportion of college teachers—and I am not sure one ought to except teachers of English—are not themselves able to write as correctly as they demand that freshmen should be taught to do. They admit their inability to advise students on their shortcomings in presenting material. In many cases they are frankly indifferent to the whole problem so far as their own courses are concerned.

5. Language is a tool constantly needed in every educational activity at the college level. Hence it is irrational to assume that it is the exclusive charge of English departments. If we agree that reasonable competence in the use of the English language is essential, every student obviously deserves, and should receive, the critical guidance of every teacher he works with.

6. No English department is justified in fostering the notion of its indispensability to freshmen. And no other department can afford to abrogate its prerogatives to a corps of composition instructors.

7. Students sufficiently mature and apt to be in college are very well able to learn to write, usually within their first year, by the simple expedient of *writing* under constant guidance. And they can and will constantly better their skill with language in proportion as they meet frequent demands in many courses for precise, correct expression.

8. The most logical incentives for writing in college derive from the materials of the courses of study. The "creative" topics of the composition classroom assume in the contemporary student a cultural background and destiny which almost vanished about the time, let us say, when Latin ceased to be a college entrance requirement. All the needs of a sane language program can now be filled more sensibly by such means as course papers, "essay type" tests, and oral discussion. If journalism, dramatics, or debating affords special incentives and opportunities, that fact only reinforces the suspicion that a reasonable demand for good

English meets a quicker response where the incentives are relatively more spontaneous and natural.

9. Shotgun dosage with rules, drill, handbooks, practice sheets (the kind the instructor can easily correct without thinking) is not a very inspiring procedure under any circumstances. I know of no place in the educational program where it is likely to be more deadening and futile than in trying to develop a respect for literate and lucid expression.

Well, these are the charges. Rather too inclusive and bald, perhaps, so that one is tempted to argue them as he seeks to rationalize himself away from a sense of guilt. But let us suppose there is some basic truth in them, here and there. It will give point to the following report on a plan of instruction in English composition which has been operating for six years with gratifying results.

I think no one who has worked with this plan would think of it as epoch-making or revolutionary. Actually, it succeeds by utilizing the obvious resources of any college with relatively little lost energy. It operates on the simple assumption that what the student needs is a chance to improve his skill in language and his capacity for organizing thought in increasingly large and complex patterns. And to that single end, instruction can be profitably directed. The task of orienting or "awakening" the student, or of making him a "social entity," in fact, all such miscellaneous accessory concerns are allowed to fall into other areas where they can be more systematically handled.

To begin with, a "course" is not considered the most sensible approach. The six hours of the freshman year normally given over to the vague inactivities of composition classes are therefore returned to the students for use in a regular course in some specific subject. That is, initially, a gain in the right direction.

To take the place of this traditional routine, the faculty members, entrusted with courses having a large proportion of underclassmen, cooperate in planning a schedule of course papers of gradually increasing difficulty and size. Every student is by this means secured throughout his first year, and frequently along into later years, of regular and plausible reasons for writing somewhere between nine thousand and twelve thousand words each term.

The final step in preparing these manuscripts is to enclose

each folded paper within a specially printed "Cover Sheet" which provides blanks for his name and other relevant facts, and also contains a check list of the common types of error in composition. The chief purpose of this check list is to offer a quick and easy means for the reader of the paper to register criticism and suggestion concerning the technique of presentation. But the constant use of these special sheets also serves to focus the attention of students and their teachers a little more positively on the obligation to use good English.

These course papers are read as soon as possible by the instructor in the course, who considers the substance, checks persistent defects in presentation, and gives a grade, which presumably reflects his total judgment on the work. Naturally, he makes any additional comments or criticism which he thinks will help that student. On the whole, over-marking, "proof-reading," or detailed "correcting" by the instructors is not desirable. Student nature being what it is, a correction set down by the instructor often passes without question or even without notice; it must be right, of course, and that is enough for young Offside, a nice enough boy, who at the moment is already five minutes late for football practice. A barely indicated error, on the other hand, can be made to serve as a goad to learning. At least the burden of correction is put squarely where it belongs—on the learner.

If the grades on his papers constantly reflect virtues or shortcomings in presentation as well as substance, almost any student will gradually arrive at a perfectly reasonable conclusion that content and presentation are not separable. He will understand that a "good" paper cannot be badly organized and scarred with careless blunders in fact and statement. He also learns that lucid statement and a sense of more complex thought relationships help even a mediocre exercise to put its best foot foremost.

Worth some attention is the fact that the instructor likewise is placed under a specific obligation by means of the check list first to observe a student's ability to express ideas and then to diagnose his faults. Not every faculty member will be willing to assume this responsibility. Some will be justifiably modest about their ability to exercise sharp discrimination in matters of style or usage. Sometimes they will tend to exaggerate their

incapacity and rationalize their inertia in dealing with a requirement which they consider proper to impose on every freshman without regard to whether they themselves can meet it. But, as one would expect, the great majority in any faculty group are perfectly able to grasp the logic of this solution and readily school themselves to pay heed to a student's technique of communication; they are willing to exert their influence towards the notion that content and container are mutually dependent.

The next phase of the plan operates when the student receives his papers back from the various courses. Obviously some instruction is going to be required. And quite as obviously, the chief reason for giving such instruction is not that the student is judged to require it, but that he himself perceives the need of it. His papers have been marked for errors and criticized for sundry defects. He is being penalized. Some of these errors have been careless and he can correct them without assistance. Others are quite beyond him. At this point, instruction by a member of the English department (if we may assume that he is better qualified for the role than his colleagues) can achieve excellent results. A conference period is therefore arranged for each student for a half hour every two weeks. Here, papers with their check lists are examined. The student's attempts at correction are scanned. General or specific instruction and assignments are then given to cover those faults that are at the moment most urgent.

Improvement is frequently rapid; sometimes slow. Naturally, the same factors in student attitude and ability appear here as in other types of college work. The criterion of success is the practical results the student can obtain. When any student has showed during a term that he is reasonably correct and fluent in his command of language and that he has learned good habits and attained sufficient skill to carry him along on the college level, he is certified as "competent." Competence in English is a degree requirement, one which he must work off before he may begin his third year of study. Various means could perhaps be used to "test" for this competence, but for practical purposes a student's progress is readily judged by those who have worked with him, and as a final criterion, his ability to write acceptably under the strain of final course examinations serves well enough.

There are other details of the scheme which have their own

special value, but the main theory and devising are here set down. The results under the plan are judged good. Freshman students without benefit of class instruction make as rapid progress in literacy as they formerly did under the routine course in composition. Some of them seem to become habitually correct and reasonably fluent by the end of their first term. They are then certified as competent. Most, however, require two terms of instruction in conference. Some three, or even four terms. But beyond that there is little point in becoming distressed about them. Anyone who cannot or who will not attain a level of literacy befitting his station as a college student within two years of entering had better modify either his attitude or his career. He probably belongs elsewhere.

If it were possible to report that no student who has attained acceptable proficiency in English by this process has ever slid back in his later college years to slovenly practices, we should stand at the dawn not only of a new era in educational practice but of the millennium itself. But this at least can be said: casualties of that sort are certainly no more common than under the conventional routine. Furthermore, since the program of writing frequently extends to students who have already achieved competence, the training is rather more sustained than where it lies specifically in a single course assigned to the freshman year. It is also probably true that faculty concern for good communication is more widely diffused and their pressure is more constant as a result of their implied responsibility to the technically incompetent students. I believe it is always true that a college student who has once demonstrated his respect for and competence in English falls into evil ways only through the indulgence of his professors. On their pedagogic souls lies the guilt. Conversely, one of the soundest principles operates again when it is given a chance: college students will come close to meeting any standards set for them, little matter how high they are. We have rather too much patience with infantile attitudes.

If this discussion begins to look like a plea for universal literacy in colleges, alike among faculty and students, so be it. For too many decades we have assumed that English departments could do a job, would do it, had in fact done it. It has not been done. No matter how industrious or presumptuous, they have not been able to push to their goal, assuming they had one,

against the inertia of the rest of the college. Instruction in usage falls properly within the duties of the experienced teacher of English composition. Yet, of all the errors that draw red marks to student manuscripts, more by far come from hurry, laziness, indifference, carelessness, than ever spring from ignorance. Hence, since we are dealing with a skill, a technique, instruction soon becomes less important than practice and self-discipline, under supervision and where necessary under pressure. This is, I think, the best reason for dropping the quaint pretense that using one's language is the exclusive concern of English departments. Why should not every teacher of college students determine to require them, as a matter of course, to be articulate and literate in his own area of study? The teachers of English, trained to help students in specific problems of language use, can accomplish most when operating largely as "service" consultants to any student working in any field.

There is in this connection one more lurking fallacy to be sharply isolated. From time to time, one meets the winsome proposal that the English staff should spend its time supervising all papers assigned in other departments, correcting them and purging them until they shall be fit to lay on their respective altars. In that idea there are basic flaws. It assumes that every paper involves two separate tasks for two distinct masters, each with his own standards. Besides this difficulty, the "subject" professor cheerfully shakes himself free of all concern for that sort of intellectual mastery which is to be discerned in the handling of material, and indulges himself in the luxury of scanning his papers hastily merely to check their facts. No such makeshift division of labor can be of much service to the student. In fact, it is very likely to perpetuate in his mind a completely false set of educational values.

The years just ahead will see many changes in outlook and procedure in those colleges which have ridden out the war and kept to their course. There will be opportunity for constructive revision of curriculum. The need for instruction in composition will certainly continue, and certainly deserves the careful consideration of every administration. It has not been my purpose to imply that this is the only solution to the problem, or even the best solution. But in operation it has revealed advantages beyond some other plans that achieve less at much greater cost.

EMINENT GRADUATES OF AMERICAN COLLEGES

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THE part which our American colleges and universities have played in the nurturing of distinguished men and women concerns so many of those engaged in college teaching and administration that a further statistical study of college graduates from the point of view of their distinction in after life may be justified. Earlier studies on this general subject published by the present writer alone or in collaboration with President Prentice of Rose Polytechnic Institute, appeared in *School and Society*, Vols. 19, 32, 33 and 50 and in the Association of American Colleges *Bulletin*, Vol. 26.

There are, of course, many factors involved in the attainment of eminence. Indeed they are so subtle and involved that in our present state of ignorance we must admit a certain element of chance. The period of college training is only a small part of the formal education of a relatively small group of persons; nevertheless, in an attempt to obtain as far as possible an objective measure of what the colleges have done toward making men of distinction, it would seem that the number of graduates who attain a certain standard of conspicuousness might serve as a measure of the influence of the individual college on our civilization. The production of eminent leaders is naturally not the sole function of the college. Many graduates, probably most of them, are better citizens and more worthy of the esteem of their fellows because of the discipline of college life. The major contribution of higher education to our life may well be represented by this very large group of graduates who are never listed in those works which undertake to enumerate those who have made an impression of a certain degree on our culture. Another contribution to our culture made by the colleges and universities is represented by the additions to the arts and sciences made by the faculties during such hours or weeks as they are not engaged in the classroom. Until relatively recent years, since business and industry have come to realize the importance of research, the universities and colleges were almost alone in fostering the

sciences and creative scholarship in general. Certainly we cannot neglect the important work of the colleges in helping to mold men and women whose influence has been significant in our American life.

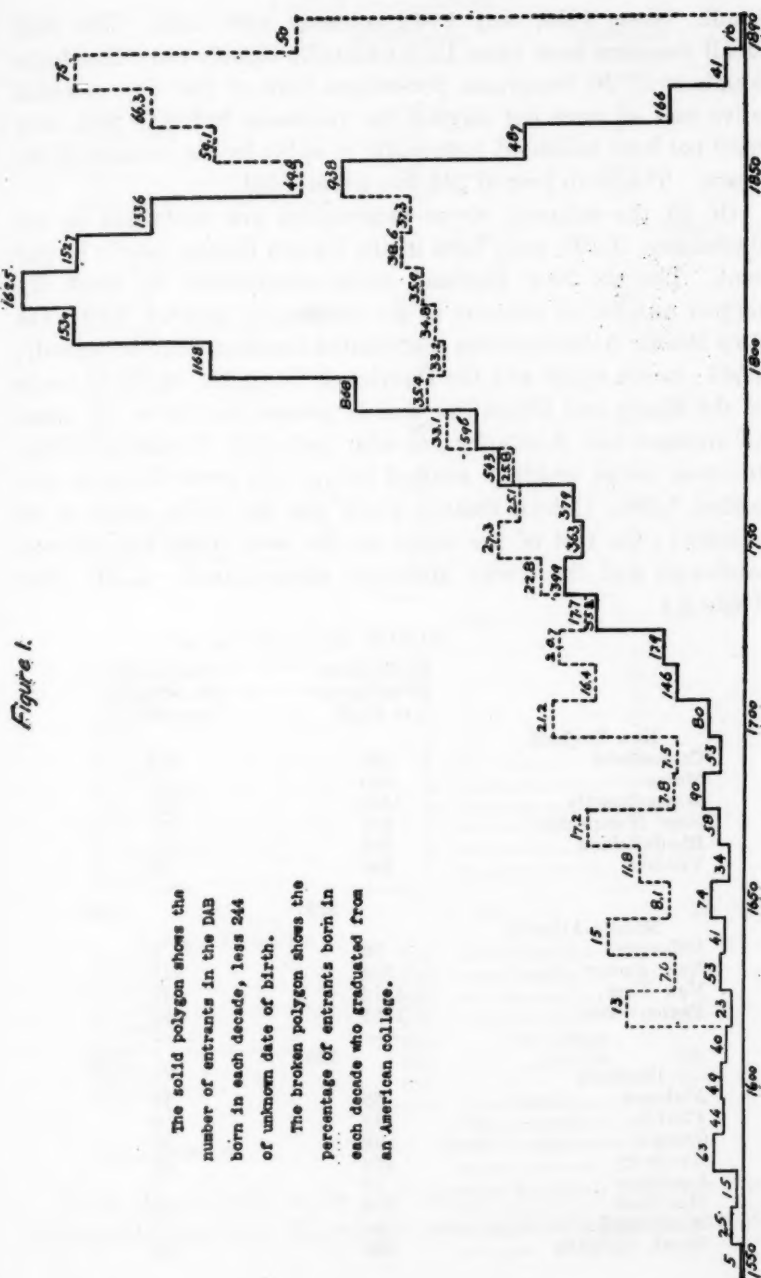
Although it is impossible to define with accuracy the influences which have molded the lives of eminent men and although we cannot surmise what any individual might have been had he come under the influence of a college education or what another might have accomplished had he not had the advantage of such an education, it may be of interest to examine quantitatively how the colleges are represented in a thoroughly reliable list of those who have made a conspicuous impression on our culture.

The present study is based upon the subjects listed in the *Dictionary of American Biography*, some 13,633 persons. There can be little doubt that this work furnishes a most reliable list of those who have made a conspicuous impression on our American life. The selection of those included in the dictionary was made by the very scholarly editors of the work aided by a large number of consultants. There no doubt are some who would be rejected by another set of editors and still others included who do not appear in the work. For the most part, however, the great bulk of the names would prove acceptable by a very large number of competent judges. As the dictionary contains no names of living persons and as the publication extended from November 1928 to December 1936, no one is included who was still living January 1, 1935. So far as possible the work is truly national in scope, the subjects were chosen regardless of their locality, class, sect, race or party. Some persons who were neither born in the original colonies nor became naturalized are included because of their residence in the country. Unlike earlier reference works on American biography, the *Dictionary of American Biography* includes many besides soldiers, statesmen and clergymen. Large numbers of scientists, engineers, technicians, politicians, industrialists, artists, writers, etc., are represented.

After the completion of the dictionary, an index volume was published which has been of the greatest assistance in the preparation of this paper. The index includes not only an alphabetical list of the subjects but also lists according to state and country of birth, occupation and educational background. The list ac-

cording to educational background gives under the heading of the institution the names of those who had attended each institution. There was no indication of the brevity of the course or whether the degree was an advanced or first degree. It became necessary therefore to check in the biographical sketches whether the subject was a graduate of a particular college or not. In case the subject attended several colleges he is credited to the one which granted him his first degree. Graduates of professional schools, which for the most part were not restricted to persons who had already received the bachelor's degree, have not been included in the present study. This is strictly limited in its scope to the liberal arts colleges and engineering schools.

An analysis of the total number of subjects according to date of birth shows that the largest number born in any decade was 1,625 in the 1820's. Since that time there has been a rapid decline to only ten who were born in the 1890's. Since, however, in the 1850's only 938 were born and of them only a very small number must have been living while the dictionary was in course of publication, it is obvious that eminence is enhanced for some time after death. Figure 1 is a graph showing the distribution of birth decades for all the subjects in the dictionary. Up to the year 1699 the number born in each decade shows no very marked trend. The low decades, the 1550's, 1570's, 1620's and 1660's show respectively 5, 15, 23 and 34, and the high decades are the 1580's, 1650's and 1680's with respectively 63, 74 and 90. Up to 1700 only 667 of the subjects were born. During the eighteenth century 3,885 were born. The increase from decade to decade is fairly uniform. During the 1750's and 1760's there is a smaller number than in the preceding decade and the number born in the 1780's is only slightly greater than the number born in the preceding decade. The number born in the first half of the nineteenth century is 7,195 with the peak of production occurring in the 1820's when 1,625 saw the light of day. Since 1829 the number born per decade falls off rapidly for the reason already mentioned. Were there no additions to the numbers of the eminent who have receded into history we would expect the peak of production to have been some three decades later, for the number of eminent men born as late as 1859 and still living during the publication of the dictionary must have been very



small. Since 1850, only 1,642 entrants were born. The very small numbers born since 1870 naturally signify only that large numbers of the important personages born at this time are still alive and so were not eligible for inclusion but also that they have not been enhanced sufficiently in value by the passage of the years. The birth year of 244 was unrecorded.

Of all the subjects whose biographies are contained in the dictionary, 10,858 were born in the United States, nearly 80 per cent. The six New England states contributed by birth the largest number of subjects in the dictionary, namely, 3,797; the four Middle Atlantic states contributed the next number, namely, 3,561; twelve states and the District of Columbia which lie south of the Mason and Dixon line and in general border on the coast (Tennessee and Kentucky are also included) furnished 2,344; fourteen states which in general occupy the great Midwest furnished 1,096; (North Dakota alone was the birth place of no entrant); the rest of the states on the west coast, the extreme southwest and the Rocky Mountain states furnished 60. (See Table I.)

TABLE I

	Birthplaces of Subjects in DAB	Graduates of Colleges Located in
New England		
Connecticut	784	615
Maine	349	109
Massachusetts	1868	979
New Hampshire	326	156
Rhode Island	205	132
Vermont	265	58
	3797	2049
Middle Atlantic		
Delaware	76	5
New Jersey	354	315
New York	1876	543
Pennsylvania	1255	325
	3561	1188
Southern		
Alabama	59	14
Florida	13	0
Georgia	39	55
Kentucky	278	53
Louisiana	78	3
Maryland	340	60
Mississippi	44	7
North Carolina	239	54

TABLE I—(Continued)

	Birthplaces of Subjects in DAB	Graduates of Colleges Located in
South Carolina	296	70
Tennessee	151	27
Texas	16	0
Virginia	726	146
Dist. of Columbia	65	29
	2344	518
Mid-West		
Arkansas	4	0
Illinois	138	49
Indiana	135	50
Iowa	43	13
Kansas	6	7
Michigan	83	67
Minnesota	19	5
Missouri	88	19
Nebraska	6	9
North Dakota	0	0
Ohio	475	145
Oklahoma	4	0
South Dakota	3	0
West Virginia	35	15
Wisconsin	57	21
	1096	400
Pacific and Rocky Mt.		
Arizona	1	0
California	33	16
Colorado	2	0
Idaho	2	0
Montana	2	0
Nevada	3	0
New Mexico	4	0
Oregon	4	0
Utah	4	0
Washington	4	1
Wyoming	1	0
	60	17
Foreign Countries		
Canada	144	USMA 329
England	711	USNA 84
France	163	
Germany	361	413
Ireland	328	Uncertain
Scotland	214	location
Miscellaneous	854	26
	2775	Total
Total entrants	13633	graduates 4611

Of all the subjects in the dictionary, a fraction over one-third were graduated from 181 colleges and engineering schools in this

country, 4,611. Omitting the service schools whose clientele is more or less uniformly distributed over the country and comprises 9 per cent of the graduates in the DAB, and also omitting a number of institutions whose location is ambiguous, we find that 44 per cent of those who graduated from college came from 26 institutions of the New England states. Twenty-six per cent graduated from 38 institutions of the Middle Atlantic states; 11 per cent from 46 colleges of the Southern states; and 9 per cent from 58 institutions situated in the Mississippi Valley and Mid-western states generally. Only 17 graduates can be credited to the four relatively young institutions of the Pacific Coast. (See Table I.)

The growth of the colleges and the ever increasing number of college graduates in the country are reflected in the increasing percentages of eminent persons who had the advantage of college education (Figure 1). Up to the close of the seventeenth century there were born 667 of the subjects of the dictionary, of whom 44 had obtained a degree from a college, almost exactly 6 per cent. During the next fifty years 1,136 subjects were born, of whom 228, or 20 per cent, had a college degree. During the next fifty years, up to 1799, 2,749 subjects of whom 838, or 30.4 per cent, had graduated from a college. During the first half of the nineteenth century 7,195 subjects were born, of whom 2,595, or 36.1 per cent, had graduated; while in the last half of the same century 1,642 subjects were born, of whom 898, or 54.1 per cent, had a college degree. The natal years of five graduates were unknown.

A comparison of the number of college graduates and the total number of subjects in the dictionary according to the decade of birth shows the following relationships. Up to the birth decade of the 1620's there were naturally no graduates from American colleges, for the oldest one was not founded until 1636 (Figure 1). From 1620 to the opening of the eighteenth century with wide fluctuations from 7.5 per cent to 17.2 per cent, the average was 11.0 per cent. From 1700 to the 1840's the percentage of subjects born each decade who graduated from college showed a fairly steady increase with reference to the total number born each decade from approximately 16.5 per cent to 39 per cent. Beginning with those born in the 1850's, the percentage rises

steeply from 49.6 to 75.6 per cent. Thus, up to the opening of the eighteenth century, the ratio of college graduates to their contemporaries in the DAB remained constant at about 11 per cent, for the next 150 years there was approximately an increase of 1.2 per cent each decade, while from the 1840's through the next four decades there was a gain of 8.7 per cent each decade. In the 1890's there was a falling off to 50 per cent of the representatives who had graduated from college but this is not of significance further than that the very young who have attained eminence, to a great extent did so in fields other than the learned professions with their greatly prolonged educational preparation.

There are in all 181 institutions of collegiate rank in the United States, graduates from which are listed in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. Of these, Harvard leads easily with 720 graduates, followed by Yale with 552 and the United States Military Academy with 329. Princeton is next with 273 and Dartmouth next with 156. The undergraduate departments of Columbia and the University of Pennsylvania stand next with 152 and 143 respectively. Brown's representatives number 132, Union's 117, Amherst's 107 and Williams' 102. These eleven institutions account for a total of 2,784 subjects out of a total of 4,611 who graduated from American colleges; that is, about 60 per cent.

Bowdoin stands next with 91 alumni and is followed by the United States Naval Academy which furnishes 84 graduates. Michigan stands first among the state universities with 62. The College of William and Mary has 59 representatives in the dictionary, Washington and Jefferson has 55, South Carolina 54, Hamilton 50, Wesleyan 46, North Carolina 44, New York University 42, Rensselaer and Virginia have each 41 and the University of Georgia has 40.

Dickinson and Cornell have 39 graduates each in the dictionary, Middlebury 35, Rutgers 32, Oberlin 31, Miami (Ohio) 29, Rochester and the College of the City of New York have 28 each. Transylvania has 26, Vermont 23, Centre 21, Wisconsin 18, Georgetown, Lafayette and Washington and Lee have 17 each. Colby and Trinity (Conn.) have each 16 representatives to their credit and Virginia Military Institute, Bethany (W. Va.) and St. Mary's (Md.) have each 15 names. These 33 institutions furnished in all 1,186 of the subjects in the dictionary.

TABLE II

	17-										18-										Total
	00	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	00	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	
Amherst										1	13	19	13*	15	17	16	9	4			107
Beloit														4	2*	3			1		10
Bethany (W. Va.)												2	5	1	4*	2	1				15
Bowdoin										8*	21	21	6	18	11	4		1	1		91
Brown										15	18	15	20	13	6	7	4	2			132
Centre											2	5*	3	9	2						21
Charleston										1*	1	5	4*	2	1	2					14
Colby														6		3	1				16
C.C.N.Y.														4	7	7	1	2			16
Col. Wm. and Ma.										7	2	4	5	3							28
Columbia										14	14	14	12	12	12	19	6	6	4		152
Cornell										17	1				3	19	12*	3	1		39
Dartmouth											13	21	18	17	12	13	2				156
DePauw												2	5	2*	3		2				14
Dickinson										5	9	4	8	4	4	1					39
Fr. and Mara.										*											14
G. Wash.											3	4	*	1	3	1	1				14
Georgetown										1*	1	2	4		2	3	1	1			12
Gettysburg															3	2	2				17
Hamilton													6		1*	3	2	2			14
Harvard										5	5	5*	10	7	8	7	3				50
Haverford	14	9	14	19	27	29	26	27	35	49	51	55	50	80	76	55	43	16	3	1	720*
Indiana															1	2	1				10
J. Hopk.												2	3*	3	1	4	9	1*			13
Kenyon												2	5*	1	2						11
Lafayette													3*	3	3	10	1				14
Mass. I. T.														1	3	5	6*	2			17
Miami (O.)											6*	7	5	7	4						29

TABLE II—(Continued)

	00	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	Total
Middlebury											35
Mt. St. Mary's (Md.)											11
N.Y.U.	6*	2	4	1	2						42
Norwich	1*	6	14	9*	4	6	2				10
Oberlin	6	1*	2	7*	1						31
Ohio Wesl.		2	6	7*	5	7	4				13
Princeton		1	2	2	5*	3	2				273
Rensselaer	16	20	23	18	10	22	9	5	2		41
Rutgers	3	5	4*	16	6	5	1	1			32
St. John's (Md.)	1	10	3	4	5	6	1		1		11
St. Mary's (Md.)	2	2	5	2		1					15
Transylvania	7	3	2	3	1	1	1				26
Trinity (Conn.)	3	4	5*	1	1				1		16
Union (N. Y.)	24	28	14	17	7	3					117
U.S.M.A.	46*	85	98	48	11	10	11				329
U.S.N.A.		1	11	12	30*	16	12	1	1		84
U. of Ala.		4	3	1	1		1				10
U. of Georgia		13	7	3	3	5					40
U. of Mich.	6*	2	11	16	18	7	6	2			62
U. of Nashv.		2	5			1					12
U. of N. Car.	1	8	6	7	1	1	3	2			44
U. of Pa.	7	20	12	12	14	5	8	4			143
U. of Roch.	9	20	12	9	9	5*	2				28
U. of S. Car.	13*	7	11	1	2	1					54
U. of Vt.	1	1	10	1	3	1	1				23
U. of Va.	8*	5	6	12	4	6	7				41*
U. of Wisc.					5*	6	2				18
Vassar					5		1*	2	1		11

TABLE II—(Continued)

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, DePauw, Franklin and Marshall, Gettysburg, Johns Hopkins and Charleston have 14 alumni each; Ohio Wesleyan and Indiana each have 13; George Washington and Nashville each have 12; Mt. St. Mary's (Md.), Kenyon, St. John's (Md.) and Vassar have each 11. Norwich, Haverford, Beloit, Western Reserve and Alabama have each 10. These 19 institutions furnished 228 names to the dictionary. The remaining 118 colleges furnished each fewer than 10 graduates each. In all, these furnished 424 graduates.

The summary of educational background contained in the index volume of the dictionary contains the names of 1,626 more representatives of 71 other institutions and departments of universities which granted graduate or professional degrees or which had simply been attended by the subjects of the biographical sketches. In no case have these been reckoned with the graduates of undergraduate colleges. Duplicates have also been omitted. No attempt has been made to compare the educational backgrounds of those born in this country and those born abroad. Over 20 per cent of all the subjects were born beyond the confines of this country. Of these 711 were born in England, 361 in Germany, 328 in Ireland, 214 in Scotland, 163 in France and 144 in Canada. How many of these received their collegiate education in this country has not been ascertained. Many of these were brought to this country as rather young children.

The distribution of the graduates of each institution according to the decade of birth is set forth in the accompanying Table II. To what extent this distribution reflects the state of the particular institution during a certain period, it is impossible to state. The number of distinguished alumni may simply vary with the total enrolment of the institution. On the other hand it may indicate the character of the clientele attracted to the institution or it may reflect the changing social character of the district from which the institution derived a large group of its students. The college historian may be able to account for the variations in the number of distinguished graduates who are included in the *Dictionary of American Biography* in the various periods of the history of the institution. It would be hazardous for any one without an intimate knowledge of the internal conditions of the college at different times to attempt an explanation.

Thus, whereas the maximum number of subjects born in any decade and graduated from all the colleges were born in the 1820's and 1830's, the maximum numbers graduated from both Harvard and Yale were born in the 1830's and 1840's. The maximum number of graduates from the United States Military Academy were born in the 1810's and 1820's. Princeton, on the other hand, shows a maximum number born in the 1740's although there were peaks almost as high in the 1780's, 1790's, 1820's and 1850's. The University of Pennsylvania shows a maximum number born in the 1810's, while Columbia's most fruitful decade was that of 1850. Dartmouth's highest decade was 1810 to 1819 although the 1780's produced only one less distinguished alumnus than the 1810's. The 1820's supplied the maximum number of Brown's distinguished alumni but the 1800's produced only two fewer. Union's most fruitful period was that from 1800 to 1819 but there have been apparently no alumni of Union in the DAB who were born later than 1859. Nineteen of the alumni of Amherst were born between 1810 and 1819 but during the 1840's and 1850's the numbers were almost as high. Williams and Virginia both show a peak in the 1830's but Virginia's numbers fall off sharply in the 1840's, and since the 1860's there is only one name found in the DAB. During the 1800's and 1810's the largest number of alumni of Bowdoin in the DAB were born, but again in the 1830's there was a peak almost as high as the maximum. The College of William and Mary is represented by the largest number of alumni who were born in the 1780's but, since then, there has been a downward trend with no distinguished alumni born later than the 1830's.

Harvard with its long history has 7.5 per cent of her total representation of alumni who were born before 1709. During this period, up to 1709, there is no definite trend from decade to decade. From the birth decade beginning with 1710 the percentage mounts regularly with only a few slight exceptions to a maximum of 11.1 per cent born in the 1830's. From then on, there has been a rapid decline to 0.1 per cent born in the 1890's. With a somewhat shorter history of Yale, we find that in the three decades, ending in 1709, only 1.3 per cent of her total representation were born. During the next three decades, Yale was represented by 9 per cent of her total representation in contrast

with Harvard's 5.7 per cent. The 1840's appear to have produced only 1.4 per cent of Yale's representation, but from 1750 to 1849 nearly 76 per cent of Yale's representatives were born, in contrast to 66 per cent of Harvard's. Since the 1840's, Harvard's percentage representation is slightly higher than Yale's for the same period.

The distinguished graduates of the United State Military Academy are spread over a relatively small number of years. This naturally follows from the highly specialized calling of the graduates and their dependence in large measure upon extensive military operations to attain marked prominence. The earliest representatives from the Military Academy were born in the 1780's, the latest in the 1860's. Over 25 per cent of all her representatives in the DAB were born between 1810 and 1819 and nearly 30 per cent in the following decade. Somewhat more than half of her representation were in their prime at the time of the Civil War.

Princeton's representation in the DAB on the basis of time of birth shows marked irregularity. About 10 per cent of her entire representation were born in 1740 to 1749, somewhat more than 8 per cent in each of the decades beginning 1780, 1790, 1820 and 1850. During the 1840's and 1860's respectively, 3.7 per cent and 3.5 per cent were born.

The graduates of Columbia appear to be more uniformly distributed over the years than those of any other institution. The maximum, 12.5 per cent, were born in the 1850's, but from 1790 to 1849 each decade produced almost the same percentage of representatives, namely, 8.6 for the first two decades, 9.2 for the next two and 7.9 for the next three.

From 1780 through 1839 Dartmouth's representation varied from 10.9 to 13.4 per cent per decade with a total for the whole period of 71 per cent. In the more recent years beginning with 1840 and extending through 1869, slightly more than 17 per cent of her representatives were born.

Although Brown's representation is spread over two more decades than Dartmouth's, during the period 1780 through 1839 almost exactly the same percentage of her representatives were born as was the case with Dartmouth's.

Over 44 per cent of Union's graduates who are listed in the

DAB were born between 1800 and 1819 and 83.9 per cent between 1790 and 1839. In the 1840's and 1850's 8.6 per cent were born and none have been born since the last named date.

Amherst's representation reaches a maximum of nearly 16 per cent born in the decade beginning 1840, but in the 1830's, 14 per cent were born and in the 1850's nearly 15 per cent. From 1800 to 1859, 86 per cent of her total representatives were born. Williams' representatives are spread over two more decades than those of Amherst. In the 1840's over 22 per cent of her distinguished alumni were born in contrast with Amherst's 15.9 per cent. In the preceding decade, however, there were born only 8.8 per cent of Williams' representatives in contrast with Amherst's 14. Since 1860, Williams' representatives have been 6.9 per cent of all her representatives in contrast with Amherst's 12 per cent for the same period.

The variations in the representation from decade to decade of the University of Virginia and the College of William and Mary show several marked contrasts. There is an overlap of only forty years of the representatives of these two institutions. The latter is 126 years older but whereas Virginia's most recent representative was born in the 1860's, William and Mary's was born in the 1830's. In the 1830's, over 29 per cent of Virginia's representatives were born but only a fraction over 5 per cent of William and Mary's. In the 1780's nearly 17 per cent of all William and Mary's representatives were born. Over 62 per cent were born in the latter half of the 18th century and nearly 75 per cent before the beginning of the 19th century.

The representation of Washington and Jefferson exhibits a very peculiar distribution of distinguished graduates. Nearly 31 per cent of her total representation were born in the 1830's; 16 per cent in each of the two preceding decades and 14.5 per cent in the opening decade of the 19th century. Since 1839, only about 13 per cent were born and none was born since 1869.

Over 46 per cent of Bowdoin's representatives were born between 1800 and 1819. In the next decade there was a decided falling off to 6.6 per cent, but in the 1830's and 1840's, again nearly 32 per cent of her distinguished alumni were born.

Cornell's relatively brief history and abundant resources from its earliest days probably account fairly accurately for the fact

that 79 per cent of her representatives were born between 1850 and 1869 and that 10 per cent of them were born since the latter date.

Dickinson College with her nearly one and three-quarter centuries of history, shows a rather irregular graduation of men who have attained distinction. Up to 1789 only 10.3 per cent of her representatives were born. In the next decade 12.8 per cent were born. In the opening decade of the 19th century and in the 1820's, 20.5 per cent. In the 1810's, 1830's and 1840's, slightly over 10 per cent were born in each decade. In the 1850's only 2.6 per cent and since then there have been no representatives from this college.

Of Hamilton's representatives, 64 per cent were born between 1820 and 1859 with a maximum of 20 per cent in the first of these. Since 1869 no representative of Hamilton was born.

Over a third of Middlebury's representatives were born in the closing decade of the 18th century. Nearly 83 per cent were born before 1819 but since then there has been a much reduced representation, only 17.2 per cent in all since 1820 and none since 1869.

One third of New York University's representation were born in the 1820's and slightly more than a fifth in the 1830's but during the 1840's it was less than a half of what it had been in the preceding decade and about two thirds of what it was in the following decade.

About 13 per cent of Oberlin's representatives were born since 1859 and in the four preceding decades about 81 per cent were born varying from 16 per cent to 22.6 per decade.

Of Rensselaer's representatives, 29 per cent were born prior to 1830 and 39 per cent in the 1830's and nearly 27 per cent in the next two decades.

Rutger's highest percentage of representatives (31) were born in the 1810's. In the next decade there were only 9.4 per cent but in the following three decades the percentage rose successively to 12.5, 15.6 and 18.7. Since 1859 only 3.1 per cent were born.

The University of Georgia was represented by the largest percentage of her total number in those born from 1810 to 1820. In the next decade 17.5 per cent were born and between 1830 and 1859, 27.5 per cent. Since 1859 none was born.

The University of North Carolina, like all the southern institutions, shows the impact of the Civil War. Up to 1839, nearly 81 per cent of her representatives were born. Since 1840 only 15.9 per cent of her representatives were born.

The representation of Wesleyan University shows a marked falling off since 1849. In the 1850's, 6.5 per cent; in the 1860's, 2.2 per cent; and in the 1870's, 6.5 and none since then. This is in striking contrast to 19.5 per cent in the 1810's, 24.9 in the 1820's, 13.1 in the 1830's and 25.1 in the 1840's.

If the presentation of these figures may cause some soul-searching on the part of faculties and administrations and some honest facing of the facts as to why a college is more productive of eminent men at one period than another, the effort of assembling the figures will not have been in vain.

TOWARD A GENERAL EDUCATION

(A Book Review)

GILBERT W. MEAD

PRESIDENT, WASHINGTON COLLEGE

WHEN the Committee on a Design for General Education (a sub-committee of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, in the American Council on Education) finally produced this volume,* which is its report, it was quite evident that all concerned expected that its value would extend very considerably beyond the problem of educating boys in the armed forces, despite the apparent limitation set by the title.

This most certainly has proved true. Starting with the figures of 41 percent of those now in service as having finished high school and 24 percent as having attended college for two or more years, the program is definitely pitched at the level which would include the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. It is recommended not only as a basis of education for those in service, but also for the transition period between service and civilian life later. The natural result of this is the recommendation, with which it is easy to agree, that "the objectives of a program for general education undertaken by the armed forces should be acceptable to the colleges."

It is suggested further, and very reasonably, too, that the program should be "sufficiently in accord with college and university curricula for general education . . . that the institutions could subsequently give credit for the satisfactory completion of the courses offered."

In case proponents of the "liberal" education theory should feel it necessary to object, the Committee points out that the distinction between a program of "general" and one of "liberal" education is one "of degree rather than of kind." On this basis, the liberal arts proponents can agree that general education

* *A Design for General Education for the Armed Forces: American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 18.* By the Committee for a Design for General Education, T. R. McConnell, Chairman. The American Council on Education, 1944. Pp. vii, 186. \$1.25.

should be contributory to a true liberal education as "an integral aspect of a full, liberal educational experience," just as a full liberal education is a necessary foundation background for intensive specialized professional training later.

It may be that some of the curriculum builders of the liberal arts colleges will wish, when they have examined this volume, that many of the things here included for "general" education were actually covered in their "liberal" courses.

The objectives of general education are excellently expressed and the fourteen proposed courses, which occupy with their detail the greater part of the report, are admirably presented. The bibliographies at the end of each section are suggestive for college administrators who are concerned with filling gaps in their own institution's presentations.

It is the firm opinion of this reviewer that a careful study and discussion of this report would be profitable to every teacher and department head, and especially to every collegiate committee concerned with re-definitions and postwar plans in either general or liberal arts education.

AMONG THE COLLEGES

BRADLEY POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE announced on Founders Day, October 6, a gift of \$37,500 from Edgar C. Foster, president of the Friends of the Bradley Library, and his sisters, Miss Amanda Foster and Mrs. Mary Foster Bryner, toward a new library building. According to terms of the gift, the Board of Trustees must raise additional money and prepare to build within four years. President Hamilton states that current plans, subject to the lifting of building restrictions, call for the dedication of the building at the celebration of the semi-centennial in 1946-47.

CENTRAL COLLEGE has announced the receipt of a \$10,000 gift made by Mr. and Mrs. George W. Hinkle in memory of their father, John C. Hinkle. The gift will be used to establish and maintain a junior scholarship fund.

JUNIATA COLLEGE has recently received \$52,000 through the will of Lieutenant John Downey Benedict, a prominent attorney of Waynesboro, Pennsylvania, who was killed in action in Southern France. His great interest in liberal education prompted this gift.

MACMURRAY COLLEGE has just announced the gift of \$125,000 by an anonymous donor for the erection of a chapel on the college campus at the close of the war. It will be necessary for the college to raise an additional \$75,000 in order to complete the building. Mrs. Ann Marshall Orr, a trustee of the college, has given \$10,000 to be used to recondition Main Hall.

MANCHESTER COLLEGE announces the completion of a campaign for \$100,000 for an Arts Building, which is to be a Memorial to its former president, Otho Winger, who headed the institution from 1911 to 1941.

THE FEDERATION OF ILLINOIS COLLEGES held in Chicago, on November 13-14, a state-wide conference on "Postwar Higher Education in Illinois" with the cooperation

of the following organizations: State Department of Education, the U. S. Office of Education, the State Division of the Veterans' Administration, the American Legion and the U. S. Employment Service. Among the speakers were Doctor Fred J. Kelly, U. S. Office of Education; Mr. Lester R. Benston, Director of the University of Illinois Program for Veterans; Doctor Sidney E. Glenn, State Superintendent of Public Instruction; Doctor Vernon L. Nickell, Doctor George A. Works and Dean H. M. Gray of the Graduate School, University of Illinois.

NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station.
Gibb Gilchrist, dean of engineering.

Centre College of Kentucky, Danville. Robert J. McMullen,
provost and acting president, Hangchow Christian College,
China.

Gammon Theological Seminary, Atlanta, Georgia. J. W. Hay-
wood, president, Morristown Normal and Industrial College,
Tennessee.

Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, Minnesota. Edgar M.
Carlson, associate professor of English Bible and history of
doctrine, Augustana College, Rock Island, Illinois.

State College of Washington, Pullman. Wilson M. Compton,
executive director, National Lumber Manufacturers Asso-
ciation.

State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota. Nels Minne, teacher,
physics and chemistry.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. James Lewis Morrill,
president, University of Wyoming, Laramie.

University of Oklahoma, Norman. George Lynn Cross, acting
president.

ADDITIONS TO THE OFFICE LIBRARY

- A Design for General Education.* American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1944. 186 p. \$1.25.
- Beard, Charles A. and Mary R. *Basic History of the United States.* The New Home Library, New York. 1944. 69¢.
- Brackett, Frank P. *Granite and Sagebrush.* The Ward Ritchie Press, Los Angeles. 1944. 251 p. \$3.75.
- Brubacher, John S., Editor. *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values.* Harper & Brothers, New York. 1944. 222 p. \$2.50.
- Kandel, I. L. *Intellectual Cooperation: National and International.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1944. 78 p. \$1.25.
- Offner, Herman LeRoy. *Administrative Procedures for Changing Curriculum Patterns for Selected State Teachers Colleges.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. 1944. 145 p.
- Reed, Anna Y. *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education.* Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York. 1944. 496 p. \$4.75.
- Rider, Fremont. *The Scholar and the Future of the Research Library.* Hadham Press, New York. 1944. 236 p. \$4.00.
- Sanchez, George I. *The Development of Higher Education in Mexico.* King's Crown Press, New York. 1944. 140 p. \$1.50.
- Sargent, Porter. *The Future of Education.* Porter Sargent, Boston. 1944. 256 p. \$2.00.
- Thayer, V. T. *American Education Under Fire.* Harper & Brothers, New York. 1944. 193 p. \$2.50.
- The Humanities Look Ahead.* Stanford University Press, California. 1943. 149 p.
- Williston, Arthur L. *Beyond the Horizon of Science.* W. A. Wilde Company, Boston. 1944. 56 p.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES BULLETIN

INDEX TO VOLUME XXX, 1944

- Activities of the Year, *see* Reports
 Additions to the Office Library, 189,
 392, 482, 600
 Admission, Standards of, *John L. Seaton*, 54
 Allies, Know Our, *Maurice T. Price*, 430
 America, Whither, *Harry J. Carman*, 414
 American Campus in Reconstruction Days, The, *Kenneth I. Brown*, 277
 American Institutions, The Responsibility of, of Higher Learning in International Education, *Ralph E. Turner*, 90
 American Republics, English Studies in the Universities of the Other, *Ben F. Carruthers*, 347
 Among the Colleges, 186, 387, 478, 597
Anderson, Paul Russell, Issues Confronting the Colleges, 285
 Annual Meeting: Minutes of the 30th, 152; Announcement of 31st (1945), 487
 Annuities, Donors', and College Security, *W. E. Weld*, 539
 Army Program, Foreign Languages and the, 468
 Arts, Creative, and Higher Education, *Helen Peavy Washburn*, 552
 Arts Program: The, in a Small College, *Carter Davidson*, 274; The, and Its Founder, *Eric T. Clarke*, 436; , Notes, 190, 207, 402, 494; *See* Report of the Commission on the Arts, 140
 Athletics, The Scope of Intercollegiate, *John E. Pomfret*, 523
 Aviation Training in Colleges and Universities, *E. McLean Stewart*, 32
Baxter, James P., III, Reconstruction of Liberal Education, 76
 Big Four and the Education of the Future, The, *Stephen Duggan*, 65
Binkley, Harold C., Campus Idol or Faith Betrayed, 570
 Board Member, Keystone of Philanthropy, *D. Paul Reed*, 361
 Board of Directors, Report of, 132
Bogue, Jesse P., Report of President, of Green Mountain Junior College, President of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 19
 Book Review: A Professor at Large, *Edgar J. Fisher*, 118; Henry S. Pritchett: A Biography, *Robert M. Lester*, 120; Education in War-time and After, *Allan P. Farrell*, 123; The North Texas Regional Libraries, *Charles W. David*, 379; Vitalizing Liberal Education, *Gilbert W. Mead*, 381; Breaking the Academic Lock Step, *Harry J. Carman*, 384; Liberal Education, *Joseph E. N. Maxwell*, 474; A Design for General Education, *Gilbert W. Mead*, 595
Bowman, Isaiah, Social Objectives and the College Curriculum, 216
Braisted, Paul J., To Meet A Need of War-torn Countries, 335
 Breaking the Academic Lock Step (A Book Review), *Harry J. Carman*, 384
Brown, Kenneth I., The American Campus in Reconstruction Days, 277
 By-Laws, Constitution and, 178
 Campus: The American, in Reconstruction Days, *Kenneth I. Brown*, 277; The Shape of Things to Come on the, of Tomorrow, *Dwight E. Stevenson*, 526; , Idol or Faith Betrayed, *Harold C. Binkley*, 570
Carlson, Anton J., Science in the World of Tomorrow, 245
Carman, Harry J., Breaking the Academic Lock Step (A Book Review), 384; Vitalizing Liberal Education (A Book Review), 384; Whither America, 414
Carruthers, Ben F., English Studies in the Universities of the Other American Republics, 347
 Changing Emphases in Higher Education: Some Implications, *Hugh H. Smythe* and *Mabel M. Smythe*, 566
 Christian Higher Education: National Commission on, 208, 404
Clarke, Eric T., The Arts Program and Its Founder, 436
Clarke, Sir Fred, The University and the Teaching Profession, 534

- Clement, Rufus E.*, Lessons of War-time Education, 41
- Clothier, Robert C.*, The Education of the Free Man, 504
- College(s): The, Prepare for Peace, *Lord Halifax*, 5; The, Program and the Returning Service Man, *Earl J. McGrath*, 21; Aviation Training in, and Universities, *E. McLean Stewart*, 32; The Work and Future of Liberal Arts, *Donald J. Cowling*, 95; The Arts Program in a Small, *Carter Davidson*, 274; Issues Confronting the, *Paul Russell Anderson*, 285; Why Liberal, Tomorrow?, *Ordway Tead*, 308; , Credit for Military Experience, *M. O. Skarsten*, 423; , String Quartets, *Carroll C. Pratt*, 448; Donors' Annuities and, Security, *W. E. Weld*, 539; Eminent Graduates of American, *B. W. Kunkel*, 578; See also Among the Colleges
- Commission: Report of, on the Arts, *R. H. Fitzgerald*, 140; Report of the, on Inter-American Cultural Relations, *James F. Zimmerman*, 143; National, on Christian Higher Education, 208, 404
- Commissions and Committees, 2, 194, 394, 484
- Committee, Report of, on Insurance and Annuities, January 1942-January 1944, *William E. Weld*, 149
- Compulsory Peacetime Military Training†, *Allan P. Farrell*, 507
- Constitution and By-Laws, 178
- Cooperation of Scientists in the War Effort, *Carroll L. Wilson*, 48
- Corson, Fred P.*, A Philosophy of Education for the Postwar World From the Standpoint of the State, 368
- Cowling, Donald J.*, The Work and Future of Liberal Arts Colleges, 95
- Creative Arts and Higher Education, *Helen Peavy Washburn*, 552
- Credit, College, for Military Experience, *M. O. Skarsten*, 423
- Curriculum: Social Objectives and the College, *Isaiah Bowman*, 216; Economics in the Liberal Arts, *C. Ward Macy*, 264
- David, Charles W.*, The North Texas Regional Libraries (A Book Review), 379
- Davidson, Carter*, The Arts Program in a Small College, 274
- Design for General Education, A, (A Book Review), *Gilbert W. Mead*, 595
- Diehl, Charles E.*, Report of President, of Southwestern at Memphis, Chairman of the National Conference of Church-Related Colleges, 16
- Donors' Annuities and College Security, *W. E. Weld*, 539
- Drennon, Herbert*, The Future of the Humanities in Graduate Study, 298
- Duggan, Stephen*, The Big Four and the Education of the Future, 65
- Economics in the Liberal Arts Curriculum, *C. Ward Macy*, 264
- Editorial Notes, 183, 197, 397, 487
- Education: Lessons of Wartime, *Rufus E. Clement*, 41; The Big Four and the, of the Future, *Stephen Duggan*, 65; The Responsibility of American Institutions of Higher Learning in International, *Ralph E. Turner*, 90; Place Sentinels at, 's Outposts, *Edward V. Stanford*, 105; What Next in Women's, *Margaret S. Morriss*, 111; , in Wartime and After (A Book Review), *Allan P. Farrell*, 123; , for Tomorrow, *William P. Tolley*, 210; A Philosophy of, for the Postwar World From the Standpoint of the State, *Fred P. Corson*, 368; National Commission on Christian Higher, 208, 404; World Responsibility of, *Edward H. Kraus*, 406; , Army Style, *William W. Hall, Jr.*, 496; The, of the Free Man, *Robert C. Clothier*, 504; Creative Arts and Higher, *Helen Peavy Washburn*, 552; Changing Emphases in Higher, : Some Implications, *Hugh H. Smythe* and *Mabel M. Smythe*, 566; A Design for General, (A Book Review), *Gilbert W. Mead*, 595
- Educational Reconstruction, International Cooperation in, *Grayson N. Kefauver*, 83
- Eminent Graduates of American Colleges, *B. W. Kunkel*, 578
- English Studies in the Universities of the Other American Republics, *Ben F. Carruthers*, 347

Executive Director, Report of, *Guy E. Snavelly*, 124

Farrell, Allan P., Education in War-time and After (A Book Review), 123; Compulsory Peacetime Military Training†, 507

Fisher, Edgar J., A Professor At Large (A Book Review), 118

Fitzgerald, E. H., Report of the Commission on the Arts, 140

Foreign Languages and the Army Program, 468

Former Presidents, 182

Future of the Humanities in Graduate Study, The, *Herbert Drennon*, 298

General Education, A Design for, (A Book Review), *Gilbert W. Mead*, 595

Graduate(s): The Future of the Humanities in, Study, *Herbert Drennon*, 298; Eminent, of American Colleges, *B. W. Kunkel*, 578

Halifax, Lord, The Colleges Prepare for Peace, 5

Hall, William W., Jr., Education, Army Style, 496

Have We A Lost Generation†, *Earl S. Miers*, 501

Henry S. Pritchett: A Biography (A Book Review), *Robert M. Lester*, 120

Higher Education: Creative Arts and, *Helen Peavy Washburn*, 552; Changing Emphases in, : Some Implications, *Hugh H. Smythe* and *Mabel M. Smythe*, 566

History: Its Place in a Liberal Education, *Hans Kohn*, 250

How to Determine the Retirement Date, *Henry James*, 542

Humanities: The, in an Absolutist World, *Roscoe Pound*, 231; The Future of the, in Graduate Study, *Herbert Drennon*, 298

Index, 601

Insurance and Annuities, Report of Committee on, January 1942-January 1944, *William E. Weld*, 149

Inter-American, Report of the Commission on, Cultural Relations, *James F. Zimmerman*, 143

Intercollegiate Athletics, The Scope of, *John E. Pomfret*, 523

International: , Cooperation in Educational Reconstruction, *Grayson*

N. Kefauver, 83; The Responsibility of American Institutions of Higher Learning in, Education, *Ralph E. Turner*, 90; Universities Committee on Postwar, Problems, *C. Reinhold Noyes*, 376

Issues Confronting the Colleges, *Paul Russell Anderson*, 285

James, Henry, How to Determine the Retirement Date, 542

Jones, Lewis Webster, The Reconstruction of Liberal Education, 317

Jordan, Riverda H., Student Scholarship in the Postwar Period, 280

Kefauver, Grayson N., International Cooperation in Educational Reconstruction, 83

Kimball, Le Roy E., Report of Treasurer, 136

Know Our Allies!, *Maurice T. Price*, 430

Kohn, Hans, History: Its Place in a Liberal Education, 250

Kraus, Edward H., World Responsibilities of Education, 406

Kunkel, B. W., Eminent Graduates of American Colleges, 578

Languages, Foreign, and the Army Program, 468

Lessons of Wartime Education, *Rufus E. Clement*, 41

Lester, Robert M., *Henry S. Pritchett*: A Biography (A Book Review), 120

Liberal Arts: The Work and Future of, Colleges, *Donald J. Cowling*, 95; Economics in the, Curriculum, *C. Ward Macy*, 264

Liberal Colleges, Why, Tomorrow, *Ordway Tead*, 308

Liberal Education: Reconstruction of, *James P. Baxter, III*, 76, *J. R. N. Maxwell*, 78; The Reconstruction of, *Lewis Webster Jones*, 317; History: Its Place in a, *Hans Kohn*, 250; Vitalizing (A Book Review), *Gilbert W. Mead*, 381; Vitalizing (A Book Review), *Harry J. Carman*, 384; , (A Book Review), *Joseph E. N. Maxwell*, 474

Libraries, The North Texas Regional (A Book Review), *Charles W. David*, 379

Lost Generation, Have We A, †, *Earl S. Miers*, 501

- Macy, C. Ward*, Economics in the Liberal Arts Curriculum, 264
- Man*, the Education of the Free, *Robert C. Clothier*, 504
- Maxwell, Joseph E. N.*, Reconstruction of Liberal Education, 78; Liberal Education (A Book Review), 474
- McGrath, Earl J.*, The College Program and the Returning Service Man, 21
- Mead, Gilbert W.*, Vitalizing Liberal Education (A Book Review), 381; A Design for General Education (A Book Review), 595
- Members of the Association, 162
- Miers, Earl S.*, Have We a Lost Generation?, 501
- Military Experience, College Credit for, *M. O. Skarsten*, 423
- Military Training: Universal, —A Dangerous Proposal, *Albert G. Parker, Jr.*, 514; Compulsory Peacetime, †, *Allan P. Farrell*, 507
- Minutes of the 30th Annual Meeting, 152
- Morris, Margaret S.*, What Next in Women's Education, 111
- National Commission on Christian Higher Education, 208, 404
- New College Presidents: 188, 391, 480, 599
- North Texas Regional Libraries, The, (A Book Review), *Charles W. David*, 379
- Noyes, C. Reinhold*, Universities Committee on Postwar International Problems, 376
- Office Library, *see* Additions to the Office Library
- Officers of the Association (1944), 2, 194, 394, 484
- Official Records, The, 152
- Parker, Albert G., Jr.*, Universal Military Training—A Dangerous Proposal, 514
- Peace, The Colleges Prepare for, *Lord Halifax*, 5
- Peacetime, Compulsory, Military Training†, , *Allan P. Farrell*, 507
- Philanthropy, Board Member, Keystone of, *D. Paul Reed*, 361
- Philosophy of Education for the Postwar World From the Standpoint of the State, A, *Fred P. Corson*, 368
- Physician, Prospective, Deficit, 470
- Place Sentinels at Education's Outposts, *Edward V. Stanford*, 105
- Pomfret, John E.*, The Scope of Intercollegiate Athletics, 523
- Postwar: Student Scholarship in the Period, *Riverda H. Jordan*, 280; A Philosophy of Education for the World from the Standpoint of the State, *Fred P. Corson*, 368; Universities Committee on, International Problems, *C. Reinhold Noyes*, 376
- Pound, Roscoe*, The Humanities in an Absolutist World, 231
- Pratt, Carroll C.*, College String Quartets, 448
- President(s): Former, 182; The University, : Essential Characteristics for Success, *Ray Lyman Wilbur*, 330; *See also* New College Presidents
- Price, Maurice T.*, Know Our Allies!, 430
- Professor At Large, A (A Book Review), *Edgar J. Fisher*, 118
- Prospective Physician Deficit, 470
- Prospective Usefulness of Staff Members, *L. S. Woodburne*, 335
- Public Relations, This is, *W. Emerson Reck*, 519
- Quartets, College String, *Carroll C. Pratt*, 448
- Reck, W. Emerson*, This is Public Relations, 519
- Reconstruction of Liberal Education: *James P. Baxter, III*, 76, *Joseph E. N. Maxwell*, 78; The, *Lewis Webster Jones*, 317
- Reed, D. Paul*, Board Member, Keystone of Philanthropy, 361
- Reports (for 1944): President, *William P. Tolley*, 12; National Conference of Church-Related Colleges, *Charles E. Dieht*, 16; President *Jesse P. Bogue* of Green Mountain Junior College, President of American Association of Junior Colleges, 19; Executive Director, *Guy E. Snively*, 124; Board of Directors, 132; Treasurer, *Le Roy E. Kimball*, 136; Commission on the Arts, *R. H. Fitzgerald*, 140; Commission on Inter-American Cultural Relations, *James F. Zimmerman*, 143; Committee on Insurance and Annuities, January 1942—

- January 1944, *William E. Weld*, 149
- Responsibility of American Institutions of Higher Learning in International Education, *The, Ralph E. Turner*, 90
- Retirement: Why A, Plan†, *Rainard B. Robbins*, 454; How to Determine the, Date, *Henry James*, 542
- Robbins, Rainard B.*, Why A Retirement Plan†, 454
- Scholarship, Student, in the Postwar Period, *Riverda H. Jordan*, 280
- Science in the World of Tomorrow, *Anton J. Carlson*, 245
- Scientists, Cooperation of, in the War Effort, *Carroll L. Wilson*, 48
- Scope of Intercollegiate Athletics, *John E. Pomfret*, 523
- Seaton, John L.*, Standards of Admission, 54
- Sentinels, Place, at Education's Outposts, *Edward V. Stanford*, 105
- Service Man, the College Program and the Returning, *Earl J. McGrath*, 21
- Shape of Things to Come on the Campus of Tomorrow, *The, Dwight E. Stevenson*, 526
- Skarsten, M. O.*, College Credit for Military Experience, 423
- Smythe, Hugh H. and Mabel M.*, Changing Emphases in Higher Education: Some Implications, 566
- Snively, Guy E.*, Report of Executive Director, 124
- Social Objectives and the College Curriculum, *Isaiah Bowman*, 216
- Staff Members, Prospective Usefulness of, *L. S. Woodburne*, 335
- Standards of Admission, *John L. Seaton*, 54
- Stanford, Edward V.*, Place Sentinels at Education's Outposts, 105
- Stevenson, Dwight E.*, The Shape of Things to Come on the Campus of Tomorrow, 526
- Stewart, R. McLean*, Aviation Training in Colleges and Universities, 32
- Student Scholarship in the Postwar Period, *Riverda H. Jordan*, 280
- Teaching Profession, The University and the, *Sir Fred Clarke*, 534
- Tead, Ordway*, Why Liberal Colleges Tomorrow†, 308
- This is Public Relations, *W. Emerson Beck*, 519
- To Meet A Need of War-Torn Countries, *Paul J. Braisted*, 355
- Tolley, William P.*, Report from the Association of American Colleges, 12; Education for Tomorrow, 210
- Training, Aviation, in Colleges and Universities, *R. McLean Stewart*, 32
- Treasurer, Report of, *Le Roy E. Kimball*, 136
- Turner, Ralph E.*, The Responsibility of American Institutions of Higher Learning in International Education, 90
- Universal Military Training — A Dangerous Proposal, *Albert G. Parker, Jr.*, 514
- University(ies): Aviation Training in Colleges and, *R. McLean Stewart*, 32; The, President: Essential Characteristics for Success, *Ray Lyman Wilbur*, 330; English Studies in the, of the Other American Republics, *Ben F. Carruthers*, 347; , Committee on Postwar International Problems, *C. Reinhold Noyes*, 376; The, and the Teaching Profession, *Sir Fred Clarke*, 534
- Vitalizing Liberal Education (A Book Review), *Gilbert W. Mead*, 381; , *Harry J. Carman*, 384
- War Effort, Cooperation of Scientists in the, *Carroll L. Wilson*, 48
- Wartime Education, Lessons of, *Rufus E. Clement*, 41
- War-Torn Countries, To Meet A Need of, *Paul J. Braisted*, 355
- Washburn, Helen Peavy*, Creative Arts and Higher Education, 552
- Weld, William E.*, Report of Committee on Insurance and Annuities, January 1942-January 1944, 149; Donors' Annuities and College Security, 539
- What Next in Women's Education, *Margaret S. Morris*, 111
- Whither America, *Harry J. Carman*, 414
- Why A Retirement Plan†, *Rainard B. Robbins*, 454
- Why Liberal Colleges Tomorrow†, *Ordway Tead*, 308

Wilbur, Ray Lyman, The University President: Essential Characteristics for Success, 330

Wilson, Carroll L., Cooperation of Scientists in the War Effort, 48

Women's Education, What Next in, *Margaret S. Morriss*, 111

Woodburne, L. S., Prospective Usefulness of Staff Members, 335

Work and Future of Liberal Arts Colleges, The, *Donald J. Cowling*, 95

World Responsibilities of Education, *Edward H. Kraus*, 406

Zimmerman, James F., Report of the Commission on Inter-American Cultural Relations, 143

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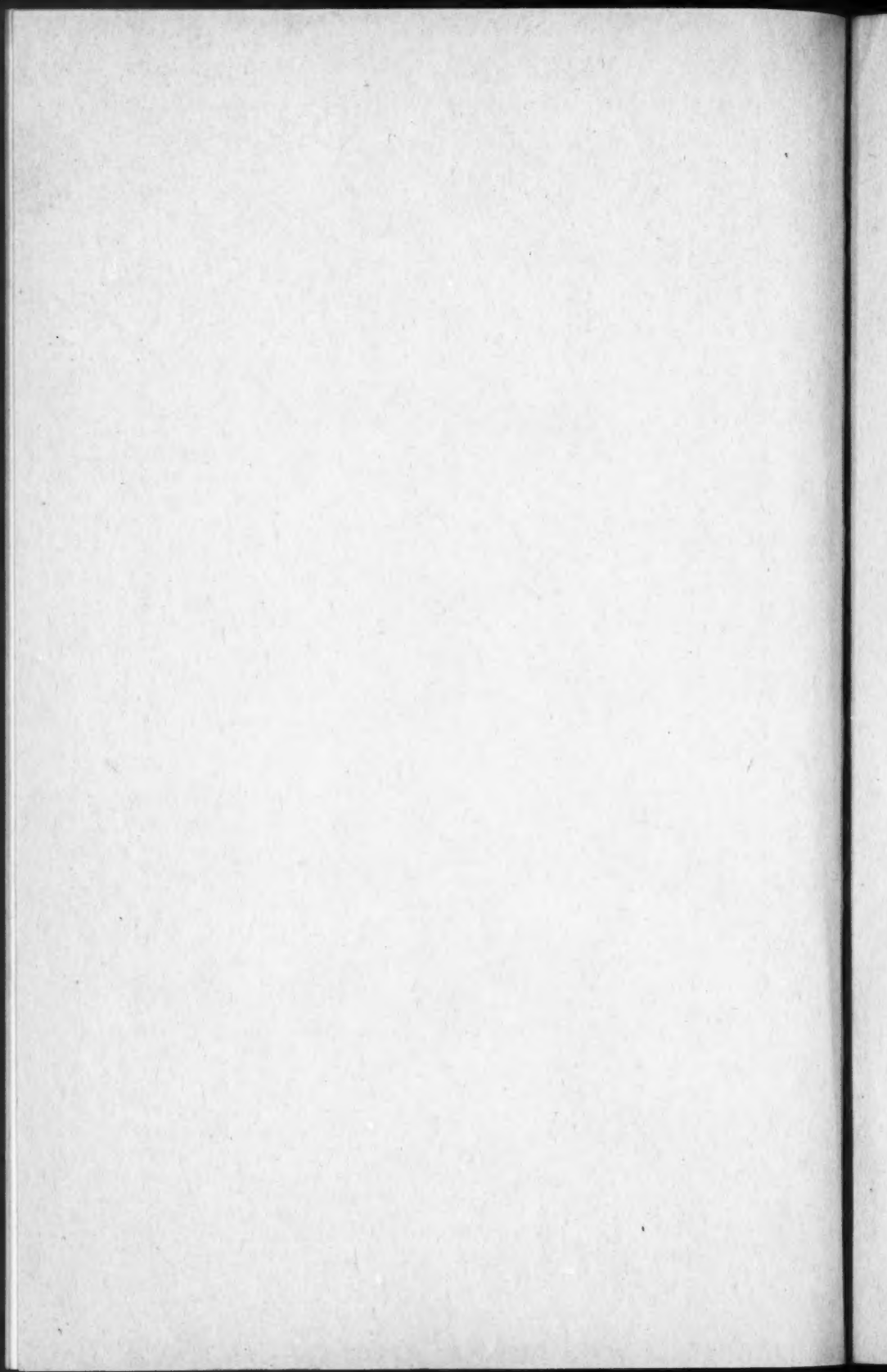
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